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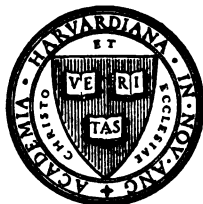
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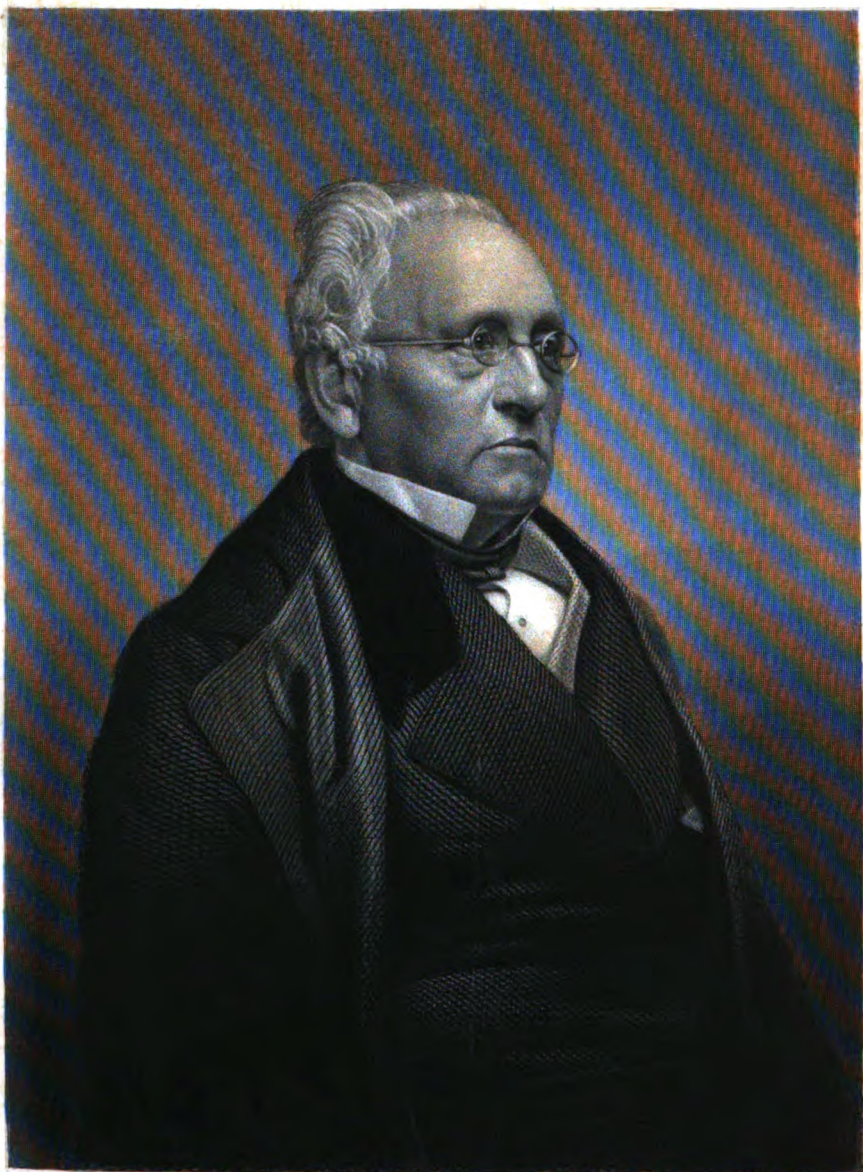
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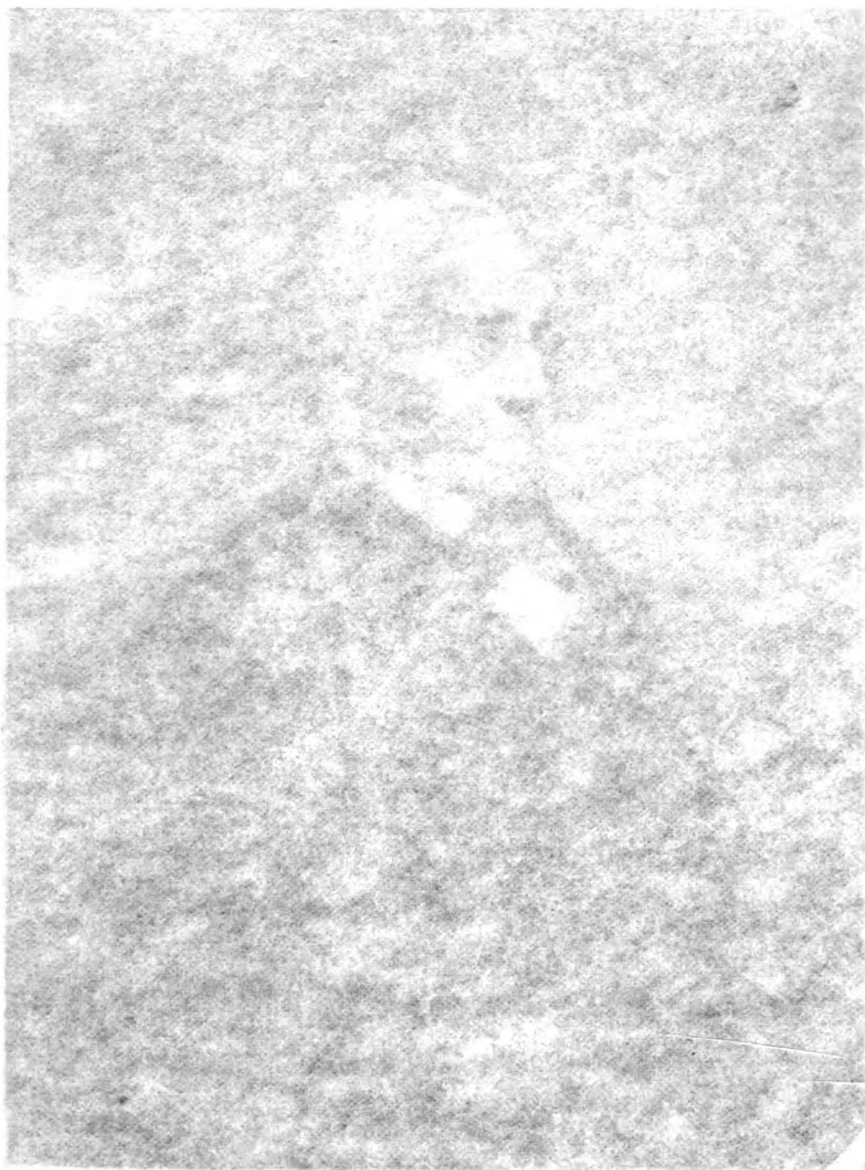
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YEAR 1854

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AND

COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

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HUNT'S

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE

AND

COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

JANUARY, 1854.

**Art. I.—JAPAN: WITH REFERENCE TO THE COMMERCIAL AND POLITICAL
RELATIONS OF THAT NATION WITH THE REST OF THE WORLD.**

**JAPAN—ITS HISTORY, POLITY, CUSTOMS—NATIONAL CHARACTER—NON-INTERCOURSE—UNITED STATES
EXPEDITION TO JAPAN, ETC., ETC.**

THERE is a trait of civilized Europe more or less prevalent and prominent in all of its nations, with their varied national characteristics, and especially conspicuous in Englishmen—both of the John Bull and the Jonathan variety of that race—over whom its influence is stronger, and is more dominant, absolute, and arbitrary, such as to form a marked national feature. This trait is conformity. It is a feature of two aspects, having an inside and an outside view. It both requires conformity with an iron, inexorable rule, and it most strictly renders it back in return. But strong as is this spirit with us, it is so much more strong and prevalent with the Japanese, as to form a burlesque on our practice of it. In *our* case, it is enforced by fashion and public opinion; in *Japan*, while it has these supporters, it is also fortified by morals, law, and authority. If it is not more rigorous among them, it is more minute; and if not more exacting, it is more exact and precise.

This is the basis of the standard by which we form our opinions of the Japanese, and of all other people, as well as of individuals in our own community. In what they conform to our own practices, ideas, and notions, they have our respect: wherein they differ from us, our derision, contempt, or disapprobation. This is not only true in regard to very broad and marked differences in customs, manners, language, or dress, but to the slightest shades of variation. Not only such as are in strong contrast, but those which are so nearly alike as to be distinguished only by eyes assisted by an artificial and highly refined medium of perspective. Shades of difference less than those of the most kindred tints, are sufficient to give birth to quip or jeer, or piquant jest. If the variance be less marked than that of crim-

son and purple, or sky-blue and mer-sereine, those of one class, even among our own townsmen, or in a select circle gathered at an evening party, will afford subject for this kind of amiable entertainment to another class assembled in the same room for social diversions.

Such being the rigid and inexorable standard of conformity among us, it will, of course, be the case that those who in certain things are the directly opposite of ourselves, must, however civilized they may be, afford much for our criticism, and something for our ridicule. It will by no means follow that those at whom the laugh is directed may not have juster notions and more reasonable customs than those who laugh at them. The Japanese are a people of a high order of civilization; perhaps in this not inferior to any nation of Europe or of our continent; little, if any, behind them in the arts; more inferior in the sciences; superior in morals and in the noble qualities of the human nature; equal, at least, in general education and breeding; superior in delicacy of feeling, in fidelity, in honor; in intellect, the European being judge, slightly inferior. It is a feather sufficient for the Japanese, or any other people, that differing from nations of conformists, like the European, so much as they do, they yet have enough interesting and valuable to attract their most earnest, fixed, and inquisitive attention, and to secure, in large measure, their respect.

It is well known to all readers that a great effort is now put forth by the government of the United States to open an intercourse with Japan, for the purpose of securing a trade with that nation. To judge of the benefit or advantages of such an enterprise, we must have some idea of the commodities of such trade and of its extent; and to form an opinion of its chances of success, it will be necessary to know something of the Japanese polity, customs, and national character and laws. It is proposed in these pages to present a few observations on these matters. Previously, however, to doing this, we shall take a cursory glance at the geography and history of the country, which will be further auxiliary to the main object, which is to examine particularly the character and bearings of their non-intercourse system which they have established toward other nations, and the efforts which have been made to remove it.

The matters herein stated have been drawn from Charlevoix *Histoire de Japon*; from a volume printed in London entitled "*Manners and Customs of the Japanese in the Nineteenth Century*, from the *Accounts of recent Dutch Visitors of Japan*, and the German work of Dr. Ph. Fr. Von Siebold. London: John Murray. 1841." Which volume is made up of extracts from the physicians and other officers of the Dutch Factory in Japan, Kaempfer, Thunberg, Titsingh, Doeff, Fischer, Siebold, and Meylan—eye-witnesses of what they relate, and Siebold and Titsingh, having transcribed some occurrences of earlier times from the Japanese annals: also, from a more recent work from the English press, by Charles McFarlane, Esq., entitled "*Japan: an Account, Geographical and Historical*," &c., published in 1852; and from a French work on Japan, by M. A. D. B. De Jancigny, from the press of Firmin Didot, freres, Paris, 1850; from the narrative of Don Rodrigo de Vivero y Velasco, as published in the *Asiatic Journal* for July, 1830; and assisted by reference to Malte Brun's *Geography*. The character of these authors and the sources of their information are sufficient vouchers that the facts stated by them are correct, as nearly as, under the circumstances, any accounts of this country can be.

Japan consists of a great number of islands, said by Charlevoix to be in-

finite. McFarlane says the number is unknown. In some accounts it is said to be 3,850; others make a larger number.

The principal island is called Nippon, or Nipon, and by the Chinese, Zipon-gu. The name, it seems to be agreed, means origin or foundation of the sun—probably origin is the correct signification. The Japanese supposed their country to be the extreme orient—that there was no country to the east of them, and it would seem that they meant to express this idea in the name which they gave it, and which means origin or rising of the sun. Charlevoix says, *ni* means fire, and also the sun, and *pon*, base or foundation; because they supposed there was no country to the east of them. It means, therefore, in fact, the same as Orient or Levant. This island is said by Brooke to be 600 miles in length, and from 100 to 150 in breadth. Malte Brun gives the length at 300 French leagues, which would be a little over 800 miles. This last author states the extent of the whole Japanese Archipelago, from Loo Choo to the Kuriles, at 1,600 miles. The two principal islands next to Nippon are Kiusiu and Sikokf, or Sikok.* The former is stated by this author to be 220 miles long, and 130 broad: and the latter to be 100 miles by 50. The whole area of the empire he computes at about 130,000 square miles. The population is not known, but is variously stated at from 15 to 50 millions. The Japanese government have very exact returns of the population, but will not suffer it to be known to others, as will be afterwards stated.

This country forms one of the great curiosities of the world. It possesses a population equal in civilization and refinement to that of any other country, with a high state of advancement in the arts and in literature. The customs of the people and the ideas of government are, however, widely different from those of other civilized nations, and constitute the country an object of inquisitive curiosity. And this is increased by that peculiarity of policy which has made it a sealed country, and shut it up from the knowledge or intercourse of other people. The caution of the government always placed much restriction on foreign intercourse; and for a little more than two centuries this has been totally and most jealously interdicted, with two exceptions, which will be named.

These islands are probably of volcanic origin. They are full of mountains, and the coasts are, for the most part, steep, rocky cliffs. The Mountain Foosi is so high as to be covered with snow through the year. Some of them now contain active volcanoes, or those which have been in action in late years. An island near Firando is entirely volcanic; and there are others of the same kind. The Foosi, or Footsi, just named, is an extinct volcano. It is in the Island Nippon, not far from Jeddo, and its height is said to be 12,000 French feet. There are many large islands which, though not reckoned as parts of Japan proper, yet are dependencies of the empire. The Island Yesso, or Matsamai, is said by Mr. McFarlane to be 250 miles long by 100 broad, average width. The island or peninsula of Saghalien, called by the Japanese, Oku Jesso, Kita Jesso, and sometimes Kara'to, Karafonto, or Krafto, is of great extent, near to, if not adjoining, the continent. Two of the most southerly of the Kurile Islands, Kuna-shir, (properly Kuna, the word *siri* meaning coast,) and Ootooroo, are occupied by the Japanese. The writer just named estimates the whole extent of the empire at 160,000 square miles.

* In the Japanese language, an aspirate is sometimes used in the middle or at the end of a word instead of the letter *f*, and has the same sound.

Marco Polo, the Venetian, first made this country known to Europeans under the name of Zipan-gu, its Chinese name,* in the latter part of the thirteenth century. He was in China in the service of the emperor Kublai, where he collected his information of Japan. It was represented that the inhabitants were of middling size, well made, and of fair complexions, and of civilized manners. They have gold in the greatest abundance, it being inexhaustible. The entire roof of the king's palace is covered with gold, in the same manner as houses elsewhere are covered with lead. The ceilings of the halls are of the same metal. Many of the apartments have small tables of pure gold, considerably thick, and the windows also have golden ornaments.

The myth of the nation supposes, that from primeval chaos arose a self-created supreme God, throned in the highest heaven, and too great to have his tranquillity disturbed by any cares whatever. After him arose two Creator Gods, who fashioned the universe out of chaos, but left the earth unformed. The universe was then governed for myriads of years by seven successive deities. The last of these married, called into existence the earth, which consisted of Kuisiu and seven smaller islands, constituting what was then Japan, and committed the government to his favorite and best daughter, called Tensio-dai-sin, the sun-goddess. She reigned only the brief space of 250,000 years, instead of myriads of years which her predecessors had reigned, and was followed by four demi-gods, whose rule continued a little over 2,000,000 years. The last of these four demi-gods married a mortal wife, and Zin-mu-ten-wu, the first mihado of the mortal dynasty, and of the historical era, was the offspring of this union, about 660 years before Christ. The sun-goddess is the only object of worship; and she is too great to be approached, except through the mediation of the kami, who seem to answer to our angels and saints, being composed of two orders—the superior numbering 492, being born gods or spirits, and the inferior amounting to 2,640, being canonized men. These are supposed to pay the mihado, as the descendant of the sun-goddess, an annual visit.

There are some traditions also of an early settlement of this country by Chinese colonists. One is, that a rebellion having occurred in China, the emperor sent many of the guilty into banishment in the islands of Japan. Another is, that the emperor Xica, who came to the throne of China in the year 209 before Christ, wished to find a medicine to make man immortal, and that one of his physicians told him that he knew certainly of a plant having this virtue in the islands of Japan; that it was a plant so delicate, that unless gathered by pure hands and with much caution, it would lose all its efficacy before arriving in China. He accordingly proposed that 300 young men and as many young women—other stories say 3,000—should be sent there for the purpose, and he offered himself to lead them. The proposal was approved; the physician embarked with his colony, and they remained in Japan—the object of the physician having been to escape from the tyranny of the emperor.

This fact is spoken of in the Japanese annals. They mark the spot where the colony landed, and show there the ruins of a temple which was built in honor of the event. It is said to have occurred 453 years after the foundation of the monarchy by Zin-mu.

* By the Chinese, Nippon was called Japan, or Zipan, with the additions kwo, koo, or goo, meaning kingdom.

Charlevoix, in his history of Japan, says—in alluding to the stories and conjectures of the origin of this people—that the people of Japan appear to be a *mixed* race, having different origin, but more Tartar than Chinese. The annals of *China* say, that in 1196 before Christ, the Tartars began to people the isles of the eastern sea. And in fact, beside the great similarity of manners between the Tartars and Japanese, there is so great a relation between the warlike genius and the fortitude of the two nations, that a Japanese may be well defined a Tartar polished and civilized. The difference in *language* shows that the Japanese did not originate from China. The dissimilarity in the language is great; and this is pretty conclusive as to difference of origin. The Chinese have no alphabet; their signs stand for words. The Japanese have letters. The Chinese language is monosyllabic; the Japanese have words of many syllables. The Chinese have no sound answering to P, B, D, R, in their words; the Japanese speak these sounds well. The Japanese cannot pronounce H; the Chinese sound this letter.

These diversities in language are alone sufficient to show a difference of origin. But striking diversities of character are also shown by Charlevoix. He says the Chinese regulate all their actions by *prudence*; with the Japanese *honor* is the principle on which everything proceeds. The Chinese are circumspect, timid, modest, peaceable, of an exactness most scrupulous: they glory in their selfishness. Cheating, usury, theft, and deception are not degrading to the Chinese. The Japanese, on the contrary, is frank, sincere, a good friend, faithful to a prodigy, obliging, generous, little regardful of money, which makes them despise trade. Their character is particularly marked by the strict observance of the point of honor. This is equally lively, says the French historian just named, among all classes of people. A man of the lowest rank will be offended by a word spoken carelessly to him by a lord, and not measured with the courteous care which their ideas of respect require, and he considers himself entitled to show his resentment; whence it comes, that every one is on his guard, and that all are equally respected. This, though to us it appears to show nothing to be noticed, yet in a country where the government is despotic, the difference in rank particularly marked, and where the respect paid to the higher dignitaries amounts to obsequiousness, is a strong evidence of their sensitiveness in this point.

Poverty is neither criminal nor disgraceful in Japan; on the contrary, the four higher classes are all without property exceeding their annual expenditure. Only the traders, who from their business are held in contempt, are rich. There is among them, he says, a greatness of soul, a strength of mind, a nobleness of thought, a love of country, a contempt of life, a certain boldness, which is marked on his countenance, and which excites him to undertake everything. There is no age, sex, or condition which does not furnish instances of it.

The scrupulousness of fidelity and honor is especially strong in the women. Several stories are related in proof of this. One of them is that a gentleman of the province of Fing had a wife of rare beauty, by whom he alone was loved. The emperor knew it, and took his life. Some days after his death the emperor caused his widow to come before him, and would have compelled her to remain in his palace. She resorted to artifice; and answered that his majesty did her an honor of which she was sensible, but she asked of him the favor that she might be allowed to mourn for her husband

during thirty days, and that she might then regale her parents at the palace. This was accorded, and the emperor added that he would be at the festival. He was in fact present. When she left the table at the end of the feast, the woman approached the balcony, and threw herself to the ground from a great height, and killed herself, to satisfy her fidelity which she had sworn to her husband, and to insure her honor.

The rights of friendship are no less sacred than those of conjugal love. There is no extremity of danger to which a man will not expose himself to serve or defend his friend. They are haughty, vindictive to excess, and notwithstanding their severity of character, are extremely dissolute. They are more easy to be reclaimed than the Chinese, more virtuous in sentiment, naturally religious, and more docile, because they follow reason. A Japanese loves truth, if he finds his condemnation in it.

In these traits of character the Japanese differ widely from the Chinese; sufficiently so to furnish a strong presumption of different origin.

The government established by the conqueror Zinmu seems to have extended over the large island of Nippon only, for it is said to be recorded in the annals, that Kiusiu remained independent of the Mihado till the close of the second century of our era.* Syn-mu, or Zin-mu, established over this island a government theocratical, in character of representative of the gods, and despotic, in character of emperor. He civilized the Japanese, introduced chronology, dividing the time into years and months, and reformed the laws and government.

The Mihado having died near the close of the second century, leaving unfinished the war that had then lasted through several reigns, having been commenced for the conquest of Kiusiu, his widow carried on the war to a close, in which she completed the subjugation of that island, and afterward of Corea. She is called, by some writers, Singon-hwo-gon, by others, Singuhogu; kwogou or kogu being her title. She commanded in person the army in the conquest of Corea. She is represented as an Amazon, and was deified. At the close of the sixth century was another female Mihado, and at short intervals several others. The annals relate that at the close of the eighth century, a foreign people "who were not Chinese, but natives of some more distant country," made a hostile invasion of Japan. They were frequently defeated, but their losses were constantly made up by new recruits who came by sea. The war was continued eighteen years before the invaders gave up the contest. These foreigners are supposed to have been Malays, but the grounds for the conjecture are not given. The great distance of the Malays is against such a supposition, being over two thousand miles. The opinion that they came from Kamtschatka or Siberia would seem more reasonable.

The practice of abdication having become common with the mihados or emperors, it frequently happened that the reigning mihado was a minor, which gave occasion to the creation of a new officer, who is regent and military commandant, under the name of ziogoon. As the throne came more frequently into the hands of an infant, the power of the regent became more lasting, and finally the office permanent.

The two offices of regent and military commandant seem to have been at

* These seems a little contradiction or confusion here. It is not apparent how, if Kiusiu was created first, and the myth above related refers the reign of the gods to that part of the Empire, their descendant, the Mihado, should be the ruler only of Nippon, and be the conqueror of Kiusiu, unless that island had revolted—which indeed might be the case.

first distinct, and to have united in the person of Yoritomo. A mihado, who had married the daughter of a powerful prince, abdicated in favor of his son, only three years old. The grandfather of the infant assumed the regency, and placed the late sovereign in confinement. A civil war ensued in which Yoritomo came forward as the champion of the imprisoned ex-mihado. He triumphed, released the ex-mihado, and placed the regency in his hands. He held it, however, only nominally, leaving the real power in the hands of Yoritomo, whom he created ziogoon. He virtually governed for twenty years. His power acquired stability, and his office became hereditary. After his death his widow, who had become a nun, left her convent to govern for her son, the infant ziogoon, and thus a woman came to the office of generalissimo, as well as mihado. She is called the ama ziogoon, meaning the nun general.

The Great Kublai, the khan of the Mongols, who had conquered Corea and China, contemplated the conquest of Japan, in the 13th century. Kublai sent a message to the emperor of Nippon, to the effect that he was determined to make all the world one family. The emperor, however, was equally determined that he would not participate in the honor of this family relation. He refused to admit the ministers to an audience, and sent them back to Great Kublai, without an answer. Two other embassies were successively dispatched, at short intervals, and treated in precisely the same manner. Great Kublai now tried the last argument. He sent a fleet and army which appeared off the coast of Japan. The army having landed on a small island, the fleet was dispersed by a storm, leaving 30,000 of the number ashore. The end of the story is whimsical. A large force came over from Nippon to capture them. They concealed themselves from view, and when the Japanese were moving on in pursuit of them, they made the circuit of the coast, and coming to the boats in which the Japanese had been brought over, got into them and left the island free to their pursuers. Other accounts of this expedition state that the Mongols were defeated in battle.

The next year the khan sent other envoys. They were admitted by the ziogoon to an audience, and the answer sent by them to their master was : "Henceforth no Mongol shall set foot on the soil of Nippon on pain of death." The khan, however, sent another deputation, and the emperor took off the head of every one of them. Other accounts relate that two successive embassies were served in this manner. Again a great expedition was fitted out by Great Kublai to enforce his family plan. The Japanese were ready to give them a reception suited to their benignant purpose. But the fleet was this time utterly destroyed by a tempest, and every man perished. The lowest account makes the number 100,000.

Hide-Yosi, in the latter part of the sixteenth century, having obtained the office of ziogoon, which he held under the new name of Taybo, made it one of increased power, by dividing the administration into lay and ecclesiastical departments, and thus rendering the authority of the ziogoon little inferior to that of the mihado. He made the severe code of law under which the empire is still governed.

Marco Polo, the Venetian, was in the service of Kublai after he had conquered China, in the latter part of the thirteenth century. He appears to be the first European who had any knowledge of Japan, and he gathered his information in China, without having visited the country. The first visit of Europeans was in 1543, nearly three centuries after Marco Polo was in

China. Two Portuguese vessels in this year entered a harbor of Tanega, one of the small islands ; and by the mariners who came in them, the Japanese were first made acquainted with the use of fire arms. It is said that the Japanese had then an extended Commerce, which they carried on with sixteen different countries. They treated the Portuguese very hospitably, traded freely with them, and some who settled in the country married Japanese women. An intercourse was at once opened with the Portuguese, and many missionaries of the Catholic Church, of the order of Jesuits, went over to Japan, resided there, and made many converts to the Christian religion.

From this reception of the Portuguese and the sequel, it appears that the Japanese are naturally disposed to hospitality and to bestow on strangers a generous confidence, and also to toleration in religious matters ; but when this is not suitably requited, they exercise a corresponding severity. The ziogoon, Tayho, mentioned above, died in 1598, soon after the coming of the missionaries, leaving a son only six years old heir to the ziogoon-ship. Iyeyas, to whose granddaughter Tayho had caused his son to be married, in order to insure the support of that prince, one of the most powerful in the empire, made war upon the infant and defeated him, obtaining for himself the ziogoon-ship, which has ever since remained in the hands of his descendants. In this war the missionaries and their new converts, imprudently and unfortunately, took part, and gave their aid to the infant. The consequence of this interference in politics was the expulsion, not only of the Jesuits, but of their countrymen and of all other Europeans from the country, except only the Dutch, who are allowed an intercourse restricted to two ships in a year, and confined to a single port ; and the new converts to the Christian faith were all massacred.*

The Japanese knew no distinction of people or nations among Europeans, but all were included in one class under the name nan-ban, which is said to mean southern barbarians. The Dutch, who were known to them only as being from the Dutch possessions in India, were, from that circumstance, considered a different people ; and being Lutherans and opposed to the offending Jesuits, were allowed intercourse under the above rigorous restriction. This exclusion began about 1640, and has continued now over two centuries. Under this non-intercourse law, no foreign vessel is allowed to enter any port except Nagasaki, in the south-western part of Kiusiu. She can come there only for water or refreshments, and if she has guns or ammunition, they are immediately to be taken ashore and kept till the ship is ready to depart. A Portuguese embassy sent to remonstrate against this exclusive policy were beheaded, two of the number only being saved to report the fact to their government. The Dutch factory is confined to a small island, of artificial origin, called Dezima, or De, the word zima meaning island. It is only 600 feet long by 240 broad, or between three and four acres. They are not allowed to buy or sell, but a commissioner is appointed by the government, who disposes of their goods and makes their purchases for them.

The mihado is nominally supreme ruler. But his dignity is so great that

* Some writers think it their duty to cover the Christians from all blame in this matter, and to speak of it as an ungrounded persecution. But Charlevoix, himself a Jesuit, and writing nearly contemporaneously, concedes that they took sides in the contest ; and Siebold, who was a learned and accurate man, and made an examination personally of the Japanese annals, calls it "*the unsuccessful insurrection of the Christians.*"

he cannot trouble himself with the affairs of government. Bestowing a thought upon them would both profane his divine nature and degrade his transcendent dignity. No act of sovereignty is performed by him, therefore, unless it has a religious relation. He canonizes great and holy men after death, but the ziogoon has the care of selecting those who are worthy of the honor. He confers the higher offices of his court, which, from their dignity or sacred character are objects of ambition, upon the princes. He determines the days on which certain religious festivals are to be observed ; and formerly he daily sat some hours upon the throne immovable, lest by an inclination of the body or a turn of the head, he might bring destruction upon that part of the kingdom toward which the motion should be. This last extraordinary function is now better performed by his crown, which he places upon the throne instead of his great and sacred person, and which has maintained the stability of the realm, no doubt, equally as well as if the mihado had sat there in person. This was a very remarkable innovation for that empire, but the practice has now continued so long that it may be confidently believed to be, like most other dreaded reforms, unattended with danger.

All the ordinary duties of government are performed by the ziogoon. Nothing is used by the mihado a second time. All household furniture and utensils are regularly renewed after once used. No article of dress is worn a second time. All are destroyed. If any other person should use them, after they have been sanctified by being used by him, it would be sacrilege, and would call down the vengeance of Heaven on the offender. The mihado never goes abroad nor leaves the precincts of the palace, because it would not do that unhallowed eyes should pollute him with a gaze. His divinity is so exalted that all the gods are held annually to wait upon him, and pass a month at his court. These extravagant ideas of the mihado may well give rise to a doubt whether there is in fact such a person. The latter part is evidently fabulous, and some parts of the arrangement may create a suspicion that the whole idea of the mihado is imaginary, and designed as a deception. The ziogoon is obliged to defray all the expenses of the support of this august god-monarch : of course his revenues must be made to correspond to so heavy a charge ; and if it can be believed that nothing can be used twice by the mihado, nor by any person after them, the ziogoon must be allowed an immense revenue. So again, if he can have it believed that his authority is derived from so sacred a source as this august demi-god, great strength is given to his rule. It is said, however, that he shows himself drawn in a carriage, in a certain pageant which occurs once in a series of years. But this is at utter variance with the idea that unhallowed eyes must not pollute him with a gaze. There are other assertions in relation to this mysterious demi-god equally inconsistent. Nor would this pretended exhibition be inconsistent with the idea that the mihado is a fiction, as it would be an easy matter for the ziogoon to obtain some person to play the part of demi-god mihado, once in five or six years. It is said that he is allowed twelve lawful wives, in order that the succession to the throne may be insured. But if these wives are not imaginary beings like himself, there is no difficulty in supposing that the proper arrangements for their comfort and protection may be made by some of the high officers who manage the other parts of the play.

The Japanese are described as short and not well built. So say some writers. Others represent the personal appearance as good, and they gen-

erally agree in describing the women as very handsome, and of an agreeable look.

Malte Brun says the Japanese are well formed, free and easy in their movement, of a hardy constitution, and of middling stature. Their yellowish complexion sometimes inclines to brown, and sometimes passes into a pale white. The women of distinction, seldom exposing themselves to the air without a veil, preserve complexions equally fair with those of our European ladies. It is by a peculiarity in the eyes that the Japanese are chiefly distinguished. They are farther from a round shape than in any other people. Oblong, small, and sunk, they appear as constantly winking. Their eyelids form a deeper furrow, and their eyebrows are placed a little higher, than we generally find them in other people. They have, for the most part, large heads, short necks, broad, snubby noses, and the hair black, thick, and glossy. This description of Malte Brun seems to be carefully drawn from the statements of those who have visited the country. Recent writers—Siebold, who visited the country, and others following him—give the same representation. Mr. McFarlane says they are not so strong as Europeans, but they are well made and have stout limbs. In some parts even the common people, if dressed in our costume, might pass for Portuguese or southern Italians. Many of the upper classes are tall, exceeding handsome in figure and countenance, and are far more like Europeans than Asiatics. Several writers praise the beauty of the women. Some of them very highly extol it. One says their women are the handsomest of Asia.

Children are trained to habits of implicit obedience, and are early inducted into the discipline and rudimentary education of the schools. It is said that every day-laborer in Japan acquires at school the knowledge of reading and writing, and of the history of his country. This instruction, discipline, and habit of obedience, early fixed, are sufficient evidence of a high state of civilization and of public morals, virtue, and good order. The children of the higher orders are instructed in morals and the whole of good manners, including minute forms of etiquette, and in arithmetic. It is said by one writer* that the boys are also taught the proper mode of performing the *hara-kiri*, which is the act of self-destruction by ripping up the abdomen, an act that the Japanese gentleman is often bound to resort to, and which is attended with ceremonies differing according to circumstances.

In the more advanced schools, the girls are taught plain and ornamental needlework, and the management of household affairs.

Marriage with one of inferior rank is held to be utterly disgraceful. When a youth has fixed his affections upon a maiden of suitable condition, he makes a declaration of his passion by attaching a branch of a certain shrub, the *clastrus alatus*, to the house where she lives. If this is neglected he is rejected; if it is accepted, so is he; and if the lady wishes to express a reciprocal tenderness she blackens her teeth. After the wedding her eyebrows are plucked out. The marriage rite consists in prayers and benedictions by the priest, and a kindling of bridal torches, the bride lighting hers at the altar, and the bridegroom taking his fire from her torch. They go to the bridegroom's house, two of the youthful playmates of the bride accompanying her, where, in the post of honor, sits the bridegroom, surrounded by his nearest relations, and upon a table in the apartment are miniature representations of a fir-tree, a plum-tree in blossom, a crane, and

* Ogilby.

a tortoise, emblems of man's strength, of woman's beauty, of happiness, and of a long life. They spend the evening in drinking sakee, a wine made from rice, accompanied with numerous and minute formalities, in which the bridesmaids, who are called butterflies, act a conspicuous part.

The Japanese have a great deal of ceremony and etiquette attending their intercourse. If two gentlemen meet in the street, they must bow low to each other, remain for some minutes in this attitude, and on parting make a similar bow, from which they must not straighten themselves, so long as by looking back they can see each other. The Japanese do not use chairs, but sit upon mats on the floor. In a morning call, the visitor and visited first sit down, on their heels, facing each other; then, placing their hands on the floor, they simultaneously bow their heads as close as possible to their knees. Next follow certain compliments, answered on either side by a muttered "he, he, he;" then pipes and tea are brought in; and it is not until all this has been duly performed, that anything in the nature of conversation may be attempted. The ceremony concludes by offering confectionery, or other dainties, on a sheet of white paper, to be eaten with chop-sticks. What he does not eat, the visitor carefully folds in the paper and puts into his pocket. This practice of carrying away what is not eaten, is an invariable rule of good breeding, and at great dinners the guests are expected to be attended by servants bringing baskets to carry away the remnants of the feast. Their table-services are very costly, and the rooms are prepared and decorated with extreme care. They are very sociable, notwithstanding their punctilious observance of etiquette, and the ladies take much delight in their decorated apartments, at which they entertain themselves with conversation, music, and dancing, and with various games, some of the ladies also occupying themselves with ornamental work.

Mr. Fischer's description of the ladies of Japan, and of their evening amusements, seem to place his reader in a very choice party of our own fair country women. "The station of the female in Japan," he says "is that which is allotted her in Europe. She presides at the feast, and adorns the social meeting. The samsie, or guitar, is even more invariably a part of female education than the piano in England. Its touch is the signal for laying aside ceremony and constraint, and tea, sakki,* and good fellowship become the order of the evening."

"In the great world," he says "the young ladies find delight at their social meetings in every description of fine work, the fabrication of pretty boxes, artificial flowers, birds, and other animals, pocket-books, purses, plaiting thread for the head dress, all for the favorite use of giving as presents. Such employments are in use," he says "to while away the long winter evenings."

But in a Japanese summer we find a gayer scene. It is now that the beauties of nature, and the splendor and decorations of art, unite with youthful buoyancy and female spirit and mirth to spread over their diversions a greater variety of embellishment and delight, than is to be found among any of the like scenes in European civilization. It is a midsummer night. The air is pure and bland as that of Italy, and the bright moon is traversing a clear blue firmament, than which Italian vespers has nothing brighter or clearer of moon or sky. The salient points of the volcano-born mountains are radiant with the beaming light, and seem to glow with increased brightness as the eye rests on the shadows of the intervening recesses, and

* This word is variously spelt by different writers, sakee, sahi, sakki, etc.

glances from light to shade, from shade to light. The surface of the placid glassy lake at the bottom of the dell is varied too by the shadows cast upon its waters from the cliffs, while it is illuminated within its rocky nooks, and rounded bays, and broad expanse, by a hundred lamps, gleaming and glittering from the highly-colored paper lanterns, mounted upon as many beautifully embellished and costly pleasure boats, which, moving about the lake, throw forth the sound of music and the soft melody of female voices in song and laugh, that, repeated and cast back by the echoes of the cliffs, seem to give a new sweetness to the balmy air. Such is a summer evening in Japan. Such is the winter society and summer diversion of the ladies in these islands. Though we consider them an unsocial nation because they have shut themselves up from the communion of other nations, there appears nothing of this in their manners, but the reverse. In the enjoyments of society and music they glide about the lakes, (a common feature in garden scenery,) in these little vessels from noon till late at night, and by turns amuse themselves with various games. In one of these, mentioned by Mr. Fischer, a floating figure is placed in a vessel of water, and as the water is stirred by the motion of the boat, the figure moves. The party watch his motions, singing to the guitar the strain "*anatoya monomada*," "he floats, he rests not yet," till the puppet rests opposite to one of the party, who is sentenced to drain the sakki bowl, as the forfeit of the game.

The ladies only dance. Cards and dice are prohibited, from which it appears these devices are known to them. Chess and draughts are favorite games.

They have a curious custom of concealing the death of a person, for various causes: as to secure the reversion of an office for the son or relative of the deceased, or the salary for his creditors. The first indication of the death is by turning all garments inside out, and the sliding doors and screens in the house upside down. The friends call at the door to pay their visit of condolence, but do not enter the house, because they become polluted and unclean by entering the house where a corpse is. A monument is placed at the grave of a married person, containing the name of the deceased and also of the survivor; the last being in red letters, to be blackened when the body of the survivor shall be buried with the other. The mourning garments are white. Formerly when a man died his house was burned. Now it is purified by kindling a fire before it. Servants, it is said, were anciently buried alive with their dead master. Afterward the custom changed so far as to allow the servant to kill himself before he was buried. This was usually stipulated in the contract of hiring. Now the effigy is substituted for the living man, probably with all the benefit of the old custom.*

The position of woman is as high as it is with us, and quite unlike what it is in other parts of Asia. The women are not subject to any seclusion or restriction, but hold a fair station and participate in the festivities and social enjoyments of their fathers and husbands. Their fidelity and purity are subject to no guards but their own sense of honor. So well is this confidence repaid, that it is said infidelity in a wife is scarcely known in Japan. The minds of the women are cultivated with as much care as the men, and several of the most admired authors are of the female sex. The ladies are described as lively and agreeable companions, and the ease and elegance of their manners have been particularly noticed and extolled.

* Manners and Customs of the Japanese in the 19th century, from recent Dutch visitors of Japan, and from the German work of Dr. Ph. Fr. Von Siebold, New York ed. p. 139.

James Drummond, an English gentleman, who resided some years at the Dutch factory in Japan, says of the ladies : "They have a natural grace which cannot well be described. The Japanese are the most fascinating, elegant, ladies that I ever saw in any country in the world." The gentlemen are described, also, as of pleasing address and polished manners. "To sum up the character of the Japanese," says McFarlane, "they carry notions of honor to the verge of fanaticism ; and they are haughty, vindictive, and licentious. On the other hand, brawlers, braggarts, and backbiters are held in the most sovereign contempt. The slightest infraction of truth is punished with severity. They are open-hearted, hospitable, and, as friends, faithful to death. It is represented that there is no peril a Japanese will not encounter to serve a friend, that no torture will compel him to betray a trust, and that even the stranger who seeks aid will be protected to the last drop of blood."

The literature of the country comprises works of science, history, biography, geography, travels, moral philosophy, natural history, poetry, the drama, and encyclopedias. The *Nipponki*, or chronicles of Japanese history, consists of thirty volumes, and extends from 661 B. C., to A. D. 696, and was published in A. D. 720. The geographical treatises are of course not very comprehensive, including only Japan and its dependencies and the Kurile Islands, with a few neighboring countries. The biography must also be limited probably to their own country, and the travels, to the neighboring islands and to China. They have an art of printing which appears to have been invented by themselves. Their alphabet contains forty-eight letters. The learned author of the *Asia Polyglotta*, or various languages of Asia, considers the Japanese language unlike all others in structure, grammar, and all its characteristics.

The medical science of the Japanese is very limited, two cures being almost universal for all diseases. These are acupuncture and moxa. The first of these terms, expressing an operation by placing points or needles upon the skin, and, with a light hammer, driving them through. The last, moxa, is a mode of blistering or making an issue by burning a fungus, called moxa,* upon the skin. They make use, however, of a few simples.

The Japanese have made great progress in astronomy, and study the most profound European works on this subject, as Lalande's treatises. They have good telescopes, barometers, and thermometers, of their own manufacture. They have great curiosity to be informed of the state of science in Europe, and are very inquisitive on this head, and eagerly seek to acquire the knowledge of sciences which are known to European scholars. They have some knowledge of the sciences of mathematics, mechanics, trigonometry, and engineering. They possess especially great proficiency in the art of dwarfing and of enlarging trees and plants, or their parts. They have miniature gardens, in which they exhibit full-grown trees, of various kinds, only three feet high, and with heads of the same diameter. President Meylan saw, in 1826, a box, one inch in diameter by three inches high, in which were actually growing and thriving a bamboo, a fir, and a plum tree, the last in full blossom. He also saw plum trees whose blossoms were four times the size of the cabbage-rose, and radishes weighing from fifty to sixty pounds. Fifteen pounds, he says, is not an unusual size for them. The branches of fir trees,

* In the wonders of nature and art, by Rev. Thos. Smith, it is said to be the leaves of *artemisia vulgaris*, or mugwort.

at the hight of seven or eight feet, are made to give a shade of three hundred feet in diameter.

The Japanese are very ingenious in all the arts. They excel particularly in giving a fine temper to steel, and their swords are the best in the world, not excepting even the once famed Damascus blades. In metallic varnish they have a skill belonging only to themselves, no other people being able to equal it. They have a peculiar art in metallurgy, in which various metals are used, some being blended and some combined, the effect of which is very beautiful. In the manufacture of fine silks and porcelain, they have a great degree of skill.

The laws of the empire are extremely rigorous; and they are not, as with some other nations, only a mesh for the smaller offenders, but it is said that the *ziagoon* and the *mihado* are both equally subject to them with all other citizens. The feudal system is existing there in perfection. The empire was originally divided into principalities to the number of sixty-six, afterward increased by the addition of two new ones, by acquisition of small islands. These principalities have been subdivided into six hundred and four departments. The princes are divided into two classes, one holding of the *mihado*, the other of the *ziagoon*. The actual government of the principalities is confided to two secretaries. The families of the princes are compelled to reside at Yeddo, the residence of the *ziagoon*, as hostages for the proper administration of the government, and the princes themselves are required to pass half of the time there. The manner in which their time is to be occupied is most minutely and exactly prescribed; even the time of their rising and lying down is fixed by law. They are not only subject to most rigorous restraints, but everything that jealousy can suggest is devised to weaken their power, and prevent it from being used against the government of the emperor. For this purpose, beside the heavy contributions which they are compelled to make to the imperial revenue, the most onerous exactions are made with a view to their impoverishment, so that, by being enfeebled, they shall not be dangerous to the government. They are each obliged to maintain a large contingent of troops at their own expense.

The police is most rigorous, every citizen being in a manner a police officer. Every town and village is parcelled into lots of five houses, the heads of each of which are bound for the good behavior of the others; thus making every citizen in the condition of a person under bail, with four securities, to the government, and having four spies upon his conduct and movements. The householders are also bound for the good order of the portion of the street in front of their dwellings, and punishable for any breach of the peace or other offense that occurs there, unless they interfere to prevent it, or report it to the government officers. No one can change his residence without a certificate of good conduct from the neighbors of his present domicile, nor without the consent of those where he intends to remove. The result of this rigorous system is, that there is not a country in the world where so few crimes against property are committed.

Though the exact number of the population of Japan has not been ascertained by the Europeans who have visited the country, yet the concurrent account of all writers represent it as very large, and some circumstances confirm the idea held by these writers. Don Vivero Y Velasco says the immensity of the population kept the strangers in perpetual wonder. Kaempfer says, that according to a census taken in 1674, the city of Miaco contained 405,642 persons, independent of the court of the *Mihado*, which is not num-

bered, and is computed at 50,000. This is not so large a city as Jeddo Mr. Fischer estimates the diameter of this city at five or six hours' moderate walking. This cannot be less than twelve or fifteen miles. Jeddo is on a bay in the form of a crescent, and it may be supposed at least to be half of a circle or a square whose diameter is fifteen miles. Other accounts represent it larger. The population has been variously estimated at from 500,000 to 2,000,000. The crowd of people was so great that it was with great difficulty the party proceeded. It was the same in the suburbs. McFarlane estimates the content of the empire at 160,000 square miles, or nearly double that of Great Britain. Villages occur every three or four miles, and every acre of land is cultivated, to the tops of the highest mountains. These facts are evidence of a dense population, and we are compelled to the conclusion that the highest estimate made by visitors, of 50,000,000, is much too small.

The people are divided into eight classes, first, the princes, second, the noblemen, from which class the great officers of state and the generals must be taken; third, the priesthood, fourth, the military. These four classes constitute the higher orders, and enjoy the much envied privilege of wearing two swords and a petticoat. Class fifth consists of the inferior officials, and the physicians; these are allowed to wear one sword and the petticoat. Class sixth includes the merchants and shopkeepers; this class is looked upon with contempt. They are limited in their expenditures by law, not being allowed to imitate the style of costly extravagance which is not only permitted, but required of the higher orders. In consequence, they generally acquire great wealth. One of this rank is not permitted to wear a sword, except on the humiliating condition of enrolling himself as servant of some of the princes or nobles, but not under any circumstances can he aspire to the petticoat. Class seventh includes the petty traders, and the mechanics and artisans; eighth, the peasants and day laborers. There is a part of the population not included in any of these classes, being considered, from their occupation, unclean religiously, and outcasts civilly. These are all that are employed about a dead body—the executioners, undertakers, tanners and curriers, &c. They are not permitted to dwell in the towns, nor to pollute a house with their presence, but have separate villages of their own. If they have occasion for refreshment on a journey, they must take it out of doors. They are not numbered with the population, and the distance through their village is not measured in the length of the road. It is very singular that their law agrees with the law of Moses, in making unclean all who touch a dead body, or eat certain meats, and also in another uncleanness mentioned in Leviticus, 15th chap., 19th and following verses, as also in several other particulars of uncleanness.

It has been mentioned that the Japanese are very ceremonious, and very particular in their observance of the prescribed etiquette. The official duties of ceremony of the *ziogoon*, the receiving of homage, compliments, and presents, it is said, are sufficient fully to occupy three persons. They are performed by a number of courtiers holding household offices about the person of the *ziogoon*. The ceremony of the audience with the *opperhoofd*, or head of the Dutch factory, is in this manner: When the president enters, the officials announce him in the words "*Holanda Capitan*." He then crawls on his hands and knees to a place pointed out, between where the presents are ranged and the emperor, and there, kneeling, he touches the floor with his

forehead; and then, without uttering a word, and retaining his kneeling position, he crawls backward till he is out of the apartment.*

It has been stated that only the men of the higher orders have the privilege of wearing the petticoat. This is intended to mean only the particular fashion of petticoat used by the great on occasions of ceremony. For it is said that the dress of both sexes is similar. It consists of a number of loose wide gowns, worn one over another; those of the lower orders being of linen or calico, those of the higher order of silk. Gentlemen wear a scarf, the length of which is regulated by the rank of the wearer, and which in turn regulates the bow with which he must salute a superior, which is measured by the scarf touching the ground. To this dress is added a garb of ceremony, consisting of a cloak thrown over the other dress, and a petticoat very full and plaited, sewed up in the middle between the legs, which is worn only by the higher classes. The head dress, or rather the mode of wearing the hair, constitutes the chief difference in the costume of the sexes. In the men, the whole hair is shaved from the front head and crown, and the rest gathered and tied on the top. The women wear the whole hair, arranged in form of a turban, and ornamented with pieces of tortoise shell. Neither wear hats, except in rain; the fan, which is universally carried, being a sufficient protection against the sun. The fan is in constant use, and for all purposes. Visitors receive dainties upon it—the beggar holds it out to receive alms. It is flourished by the dandy, as the cane among us; the schoolmaster uses it as with us he does the ferule; and it is presented on a salver to the high-born criminal to announce his doom.

The religion of the Japanese is polytheism. They have a great number of gods, it is said, and the temples are nearly as numerous as the dwelling houses, and generally magnificent. It is not rare, says Charlevoix, to see on them 80 or 100 cedar columns of prodigious height, and colossal statues of bronze, or even sometimes of gold or silver, with a great number of lamps and very costly ornaments. Don Vivero y Velasco, the Spanish governor of the Philippines, who was two years in the country before the era of the interdict, says that the Pantheon was the largest building he had seen in Japan; it contained 2,600 gilt bronze statues of gods.

If a person spill a drop of blood on him, he is impure for seven days. If in building a temple a workman be wounded, he is afterward incapable of working on that or any sacred edifice; and if this happen in building or repairing a temple of Ten-sio-dai-dsin, the temple must be pulled down. There are other causes of uncleanness, which have been before adverted to. No quadruped may be eaten except the deer, and for eating those prohibited a person is unclean for thirty days. The pheasant, crane, and aquatic birds may be eaten. He who eats others, however, is unclean only one hour. During the uncleanness, from any cause, the person must not enter a temple, nor do any act of religion.† Some writers assert that, though polytheists, the Japanese are not idolators—the gods being spiritual beings, and no worship being paid to images. The original religion is called sin-siu, from sin, gods, and siu, faith—or properly, in the Japan-se language, kami-no-mitsi, or the way of the gods. It is not, however, strictly correct to say that they are polytheists, for their gods are merely spirits, but not subjects of worship, only objects of faith—Ten-sio-dai-dsin being the only object of worship.

* Kaempfer, as quoted in "Manners and Customs of the Japanese," p. 97, New York Ed.

† Charlevoix, *Hist. de Japon*.

Those which they call gods are, therefore, rather like our common idea of angels. The duties enjoined by their religion are, 1st, the preservation of a pure fire, as the emblem of purity, and instrument of purification; 2d, purity of soul, heart, and body; 3d, observance of festival days; 4th, pilgrimages; 5th, the worship of the kami, or sun goddess.*

There is another religion beside the original above mentioned: it is the religion of Buddha. Its author was a man who lived at some uncertain time variously stated at from 500 to 2,000 years before Christ. It is similar to the Buddhism of India, and said to have come from there. It was introduced into Japan by Sakya or Xaca. It teaches the immortality of the soul, both of men and animals, and the metempsychosis. 2d. That the soul, after separation from the body, is rewarded in a place of happiness, or punished in a place of misery, according to the good or evil done in the body. 3d. The souls of men differ in the nature of their actions, and will receive or enjoy different degrees of punishment or happiness. 4th. Amida is the Supreme God. 5th. It is only by the mediation of Amida that man can obtain remission of sins, and come into paradise, but he must also lead a virtuous life, and practice the five precepts of Sackya. First. Not to kill any animal. Second. Not to rob. Third. To avoid wantonness, (paillardise.)† Fourth. Not to lie. Fifth. Not to drink strong liquor.

But the most remarkable part of the religion of this people is that they have many ceremonies, observances, and emblems similar to the Catholics. These appear to belong to the original religion, but may have been ingrafted upon it since the Christian era. A Sintoo worshiper, on approaching a temple, performs ablution before entering at a reservoir provided for the purpose; he then kneels before the mirror, which is in every temple; then prays, and when he has concluded, deposits money in a box, and retires.‡ The pilgrimage to a certain temple of the sun-goddess is enjoined upon all, and by the more devout is performed yearly. They use the sign of the cross, and a chaplet of beads similar to the Catholic. The custom of sounding a clock at certain times a day is noticed by Charlevoix, which he likens to the Catholic ceremony for the Angelus. At the sound of the clock, all the people kneel, and invoke the god with a loud voice. He mentions also the pilgrimages in use, he says, by both religions, for the purpose of obtaining pardon of sins. Processions, also, in which they carry images of the gods, and relics, are mentioned by him; and also public vows and prayers to soften heaven in periods of great calamity; the right of asylum afforded by holy places; canonizations; hierarchical orders; lamps and wax candles burning before images; confession; burning of incense, and feasts.§ The

* Manners and customs of the Japanese in the 19th century, from accounts of recent Dutch visitors of Japan, and from the German work of Dr. Ph. Fr. Von Siebold, N. Y. Ed., p. 238.

† Charlevoix, *Hist. de Japon*.

‡ Manners and Customs of the Japanese in the Nineteenth Century, &c. New York Edition, page 239.

§ There is not only this remarkable resemblance in the Japanese religion to the rights and observances of the Catholic Church, but it is said by Charlevoix that the Monks distribute consecrated bread to which they attribute great virtue. And the London compilation from Von Siebold and others, so often quoted, states that the pilgrim when he visits the shrine receives from the priest a written absolution for his sins. (New York ed., p. 241.) Charlevoix farther informs us, that the god who is the principal object of worship is represented with three heads and four hands, to express the trinity, and the universality of his works. Nor is this all, but, from the account given by one of the missionaries, it appears that their idea of the Supreme God is the same as that taught by Christianity. "Pere Louis Froer," says Charlevoix, "has assured us that there is among the Japanese a more noble idea of Amida. They claim that this God is invisible, of a nature different from the elements, that he existed before the creation of the heaven and the earth, that he had no beginning, and will have no end; that all things were created by him; that his being extends over the

two principal sects are divided into upwards of thirty sects, each of which enjoys perfect toleration and equality before the law.*

These people surpass all others in agricultural labor and skill. With a mountainous, and for the most part naturally infertile country, their persevering labor has not only made it to yield articles for the sustenance of man throughout all the slopes and crevices of the hills, but their skill in producing vegetable monsters, both giants and dwarfs, is wonderful. "Nature has not given in vain to this people," says Kampfer, "a body robust for labor, and a mind capable of the most ingenious inventions." The country, diverse in soil and in situation, divided into mountain and lowland, consisting of separate islands, has a variety of products, and truly, says the same writer, "there are few things which we may desire that are not produced by some of the many islands or provinces." Gold, silver, copper, lead, iron, coal, sulphur, porcelain, cattle, horses, rice, figs, and other fruits, with all kinds of grain, peas and legumes in abundance, and a great number of things which serve them for their manufactures and their dress, he tells us, are the productions of this country. And he adds, that they have pearls and precious stones, and almost all kinds of drugs.

Of the trade and Commerce of Japan, or what this might be made, either in kind or amount, all must be uncertain and conjectural. Between the time of the first European visit to the country and the interdict which has excluded them, Commerce was in a state very different from its condition in our time. The world was in a different state. And if we could have an authentic statement of the Japanese Commerce with Europe at that period, it would not form a very good basis for estimating the Commerce that might grow out of friendly relations for the future. Nor can much better calculation be drawn from the restricted trade with the Dutch and Chinese since that period. The principal Dutch trade has been in copper, camphor, tea, lackered ware, porcelain, and brimstone. The cutlery, which is superior to all other, at least in the article of swords, with the metals, and some drugs and precious stones, might be added to the credit side of the Japanese ledger. But so well are all their wants supplied from their home industry, that it might be difficult to find something to lade our ships with on the outward voyage. Perhaps calicoes and agricultural implements, shoes and hats and glass ware, might help to make up the invoice.

If the fact, that two Dutch ships and twelve Chinese junks making one voyage yearly, have been sufficient to supply to Japan all she wants of foreign articles and to take away her surplus for foreign markets, and that the

heaven, the earth, and under the earth; that he is present everywhere, and governs all things; that he is unchangeable, immaterial; and that he ought to be revered as the inexhaustible source of all good." President Meylan asserts, (as the London compilation already frequently referred to informs us, p. 247, New York ed.,) that about the year 50 of our era, a Brahminical sect was introduced into Japan, the doctrines of which were the redemption of the world by the son of a virgin, who died to expiate the sins of men, thus insuring to them a joyful resurrection, and a trinity of immaterial persons, constituting one eternal, omnipresent, omnipotent God, the Creator of all, to be adored as the source of all good.

* It is well remarked, and with the force of truth, by a writer in the London Quarterly Review, vol. III., No. 104, for November, 1834, in proof of this fact: "Nor let the cruel persecutions of the Christians in Japan be objected to me. I ask, whether this toleration was not one of the causes which so far facilitated the introduction of Christianity there?" It is related by Don Vivero y Velasco, a very pious Catholic, in 1608, that the bonzes of all the sects having concurred in a request to the emperor that he would expel our monks from Japan, the prince inquired how many different religions there were in Japan. "Thirty-five," was the reply. "Well," said he, "were thirty-five sects can be tolerated, we can easily bear with thirty-six: leave the strangers in peace." (Asiatic Journal, vol. II., New York, July, 1830, p. 199.) The London compilation before referred to, in the account of the civil war about 1600, says: "Hide Yori was supported by all the Japanese Christians," p. 260. It is represented by Siebold and others that they took part in the war.

Dutch share in this monopoly of the trade has been a losing concern, so that, by the solicitation of the Dutch Company, their government took the burden off their hands, may be regarded as any indication ; or if any conclusion may be drawn from the opinions of the writers from whom our knowledge of Japanese matters is derived, we are bound to form the opinion that the foreign trade of the country, if open to the world, cannot be very large in amount or very lucrative.*

The infraction of all laws in Japan is punished with death or imprisonment—mostly with death. This is the penalty inflicted upon all persons implicated in making or suffering any breach of the non-intercourse laws. If a foreigner attempts to violate the prohibitions by entering the Japanese territory, not only is he punishable with death, but the prince of the province and the military officers whose duty is to see the law enforced in the particular place, are all liable to capital punishment : and the penalty is executed with the utmost rigor, except that the officers are allowed to dispatch themselves by the harakiri. Those who bring home shipwrecked mariners are none the less criminal, if they should land, and they would be even regarded with less favor from this circumstance, it being a crime for the Japanese to leave his country, which subjects him to the sentence of death if he returns, and criminal also in those who return him.

It is known to all our readers that an expedition has been lately fitted out from our shores by the Executive of the United States, under the two-fold object of obtaining permission from the Japanese government for our steamers running to India to procure supplies of coal from Japan ; and also to endeavor to induce that nation to open its ports to our trade. The expedition is charged with the return of some shipwrecked Japanese—a circumstance which will be of great danger to the success of the expedition, and may be, of itself, sufficient wholly to frustrate it. Of the probabilities of success, we shall presently say a few words. But first, we hope to be excused for noticing some erroneous opinions abroad in relation to the expedition.

The London Examiner, as quoted in the work of Dr. Talbot Watts, says the Americans "send a force to demand reparation for injuries done to themselves by such flagrant violation of the laws of nature and society ; to compel the Japanese to renew their intercourse with the rest of mankind, and to forbear from the practice of a ferocious inhospitality." The same paper speculates on the insufficiency of the force, and of the best chance of success being in the bombardment of Jeddo, which, by the way, is some fourteen miles from the roadstead where the vessels will be compelled to anchor, and very judiciously recommends that the Americans should stick to their vessels, and not attempt a landing.

The Dublin Nation, as quoted by the same author, says the objects of

* In a late number of De Bow's Commercial Review, a pretty formidable list is set down of articles said to be carried by the Dutch to Japan, and an estimate is ventured, which supposes the whole trade, if it could be opened to the world, would amount to \$200,000,000. We know not from what sources the writer may have derived his facts on which to found such a computation of the amount. From what we find stated in the compilation made up from the accounts of the Dutch residents and from the work of Jancigny, taken in connection with the fact that nearly every article in use in Japan, or that could be there used, is produced or made there, and of the few vessels now employed, and even those few at a loss, we are constrained to think that a statement of one-quarter of the above amount would be incredible. Of twenty-one articles said to be carried to Japan by the Dutch, thirteen are imported by us, and some are products of the East Indies, which must forever exclude our competition ; and of thirteen named as carried by the Chinese, we could carry only dried fish and whale oil ; and the article of dried fish, as well as that of porcelain, are included by the writer in the list, both of imports and exports. It is by no means obvious that the trade would amount to a tithe of the sum named in De Bow.

the expedition are "to terminate the rigid exclusion which dooms to destruction the vessel of any nation which may seek the protection of its harbors from the perils of the deep, and to demand the release of numerous Europeans and Americans captured by the jealous and cruel natives, and exhibited in iron cages in various parts of the Japanese territory;" and further, "the proposal for a commercial relation is left to the free choice of the country and the government; *but the other propositions are to be rigorously enforced by the whole strength of the squadron, if force be necessary.*"

The Paris *La Patrie* says: "What England did in China twelve years ago, the United States are going to attempt in Japan:" and "the immense resources which she (the U. States) has at her disposal will permit her happily to end, sooner or later, an expedition, the success of which interests her Commerce to so high a degree." And the same paper, quoting the London Times, says: "Although the Japanese are a more warlike race than the Chinese, they could not do anything against the cannons of the three frigates."

The Edinburgh Review, October, 1852, says the objects of the expedition are "to demand satisfaction for various acts of outrage and inhumanity perpetrated by the Japanese on the crews of ships engaged in the whale fishery," (p. 183.) The same work, in relation to the expedition, speaks of it as a *warlike* one, and speculates on the result of the anticipated conflict, using the word *attack* and similar phrases, and says we cannot contemplate the *slaughter* of a gallant people without a pang of regret. Of the interdiction of the Japanese, and of the non-intercourse policy, the Review says it is a mystery which the governments of the world have a right to dispel, (p. 182;) and that other nations have a right to compel an intercourse, (p. 200,) evidently intimating that such is the object of the American Government.*

Such views as are above expressed by foreign writers, it would be quite unnecessary to notice for any purpose of enlightening American readers. But in this discussion of Japanese affairs which we have essayed with especial reference to the expedition, on which some views of our own will be added, we could not feel that the subject had received its due treatment without correcting the errors of these foreign writers in regard to the intentions of our government, especially as some of the writers are of the highest respectability, and as silence might be construed into an acquiescence in their truth. The ideas thus expressed have their origin wholly in the imagination, and are altogether erroneous, which will be apparent from three or four considerations.

1st. The instructions given by our government do not authorize the use of any force, or in the most distant manner give any intimation to the commander of the squadron that any attack is, in any event, to be made, or force used; nor are any of the purposes or objects named in the above extracts to be found in the instructions. If, therefore, the Commodore should

* Charles McFarlane, Esq., the author of a recent valuable English work on Japan, also expresses apprehensions that force may be attempted by our squadron, which he does in complimentary terms to the valor of the American troops. "Beaten," he says, "they (the Japanese) must be by men such as those who marched from the United States into Mexico; but we cannot, without emotion, think of the numbers that may be slaughtered before any surrender, capitulation, or military or political settlement whatsoever can take place," (p. 215, New York ed.) We cannot, however, feel the confidence in the result which is expressed by this author. Japan, with a population, as we think, ten to one to the Mexican, entirely homogeneous, strongly military, packed into a much less space, would meet an invading army with twenty for every one that met our troops in Mexico, and if cut down to a man, other twenty would come in the place of every score slain.

attempt force, it would be wholly unauthorized, and he would be subjected to inquiry and punishment at home, if it could be supposed, against all human probability, that the Japanese would suffer him to return home:

2d. The compulsion of any nation to a trade with us, or to any change in her laws, is entirely beyond the scope of the policy of the United States Government. It has ever contended for the right of all nations to make their own laws, without any accountability to other nations, and without any right of intervention on the part of other nations. An attempt to compel the Japanese to change their laws relating to foreign intercourse, is an attempt to destroy so far their sovereignty, and is oppugnant to the spirit of our government, and to the whole uniform course of our policy. It would be going very far beyond what Kossuth suggested that he desired it should do—far beyond what the most ardent sympathizers with nations struggling under oppression have ever suggested should be done by us in behalf of freedom.

3d. If it were within the scope of our policy, the Executive has no authority to direct hostilities against another nation without act of Congress. Every well-instructed man and boy among us knows that the President has no power to do this. This is no questionable matter. And to these reasons it might well be added, that in the face of the great populousness and warlike spirit of the Japanese, and of the resolution with which in former times they have met attacks upon them, and of the law which requires that the prince and the chief military officers of the province where any landing should be effected shall answer it with their lives, and in face of the great standing army of the empire—a hostile expedition with no greater force than the squadron ordered to Japan, would not seem to be devised by a statesman, but projected by a boy.

The Japanese, as all accounts agree, possess the military spirit of the Tartar and the northern Asiatic. They have a standing army of three hundred and fifty thousand men, are a hardy race, have a sense of honor bordering on fanaticism, and traditions of frustrated invasions of Kublai and the neighboring nations, with which their valor is warmed and their national glory is suffused with a living luster. They have the best sword in the world, said to surpass the blade of Toledo and of Damascus, and such skill with it that it is reported they can cleave a man in two, or sunder him in the thickest part of the body;* and, as before said, death is the doom, rigorously enforced, of the officers who should allow of any foreign invasion of the territory. We do not think it well judged to send so much force, or any force, to Japan, for the reason that it is liable to the construction that foreign writers have put upon it; and for the more important consideration that it will appear to the Japanese themselves to present a hostile aspect, and to be intended for intimidation, which would of itself be sufficient to frustrate the objects of the expedition.

The idea of our government in sending a force there, probably has been that it should exert a moral force, not a physical; that it should impress the Japanese with the idea of our national greatness and power. But this with such an extremely jealous people, and one not susceptible of intimidation, is a great mistake. It is exactly the thing that should have been avoided. Another error committed is the charge of returning those Japanese who had been shipwrecked, to their country. This, in the eye of the Japanese law,

* Don Vivero y Velasco. *Asiatic Journal*, July, 1830, p. 230.

instead of being viewed as a kindness, is a legal wrong, a violation of law, an offence which is subject to punishment. Instead of conciliating the Japanese government, its effect will be the contrary. Of this our government has been notified by the Japanese emperor. This will be another cause for rendering the expedition unsuccessful. A third will be that our government asks too much. It should have rested satisfied with one thing, the one of most important necessity. If, studious of the Japanese peculiarities of law, dispositions, and customs, and anxiously seeking to avoid everything that might, in either, give offence, our commissioner were charged with only one request, that our steamers on their passage to China and India might obtain a supply of coal at a Japanese port, or that of one of the dependencies, there might be a chance that this might be granted; and this once obtained, the rest might be safely left to time and circumstance, with such a people, the best negotiators. But even this request for coal would be more likely to be successful when made by the master of each boat for himself, than by the formal presentment of a government envoy. This or any other requests would be likely to receive more favor if made by the Dutch government than any other. It seems indeed, by the note verbale of the Netherlands Minister to the late Secretary of State, that this request, which is made the principal and foremost one in that officer's instructions to Com. Aulick, was already granted before asking. The note runs, "It is a matter of public notoriety that foreign vessels are excluded from Japan by the government of that empire. It was, nevertheless, determined in 1842, that if such vessels should be cast upon the shores of Japan by storms, *or come there in want of provisions, with a view of asking for such commodities, water, or wood for fuel, those articles should be granted to them on request.*" Any show of menace or peremptory demand would be likely to cause a withdrawal of these indulgences.

At various periods since the existence of the interdict several attempts have been made by Russian, English, American, French, and other navigators to gain permission to trade, or to be allowed to go on shore, all with the same result. In 1791 the Argonaut, in 1803 the Frederic, in 1808 the Phaeton, English frigate, in 1818 Capt. Gordon, of the English navy, in a small brig, successively appeared in the waters of Japan, and, at different points, requested permission to trade. They were all civilly but firmly refused. In the case of the Phaeton, an expedition was planned to burn her, headed by the prince of the province, and great military preparation was made for the execution of the plan. This was in consequence of some violence of Capt. Pellew, in seizing two men of the Dutch factory, and in making menaces to the Japanese authorities. There was about this time an appearance of a disposition on the part of the Japanese to relax somewhat of the extreme rigor of their policy; but this ill-judged conduct of Capt. Pellew again caused all their caution to revive. The Phaeton suddenly left the harbor, and thus prevented the meditated attack. But the Governor of Nagasaki, knowing that he had incurred the penalty of death for suffering the ship to escape, assembled his household, and performed execution on himself by ripping open his abdomen, and the several commanders of the neglectful military posts followed his example. The Prince of Fizen, who at the time was residing at Yeddo, on the farther side of the kingdom, in obedience to the requirement of law, was punished with one hundred days imprisonment for the neglect of these military officers who had charge in his absence.

Notwithstanding this unfortunate visit of Capt. Pellew, Capt. Gordon, ten

years later, was treated with great civility, though the authorities compelled him to deliver to them his rudder, and surrounded his vessel with about sixty gun boats and guard boats. In 1845 Capt. Sir Edward Belcher, in the frigate *Samarang*, entered the harbor of Nagasaki, and requested leave to go on shore to make some astronomical observations. This was granted. This, however, was accorded by some of the inferior officers underhandedly, and they expressed to the strangers that if it were repeated it would lead to their punishment. The officers of the frigate were much impressed with the manners of the Japanese. The narrative represents that "they were most polite and courteous, conducting themselves with refined and polished urbanity, and exhibiting in their actions a dignified and respectful demeanor, that put to shame the ill breeding of the seamen who ventured to laugh at them." Indeed, the English and Americans may take lessons in manners from this highly civilized and refined people. The ships above named were English.

Several American vessels have at times made attempts to gain a footing in the country. The first was in the year 1797, during the war between England and Holland. The war between the two powers making it dangerous for Dutch vessels to traverse the ocean, the Dutch authorities at Batavia engaged the American ship *Eliza*, of New York, to take the place of the Dutch annual vessel. The appearance of a vessel bearing the Dutch flag, but with a crew speaking another language, was a riddle which perplexed the Japanese, and awakened their jealousy. The Dutch residents were at last able to make all clear, and she was permitted to leave her cargo and take another. This was all in her Dutch character and for Dutch account. But Capt. Stewart, her commander, in a few years after presented himself in another vessel, under the American flag, and requested permission to trade, which was refused. He was supplied with water—it being the uniform practice to furnish vessels in want of refreshments or provisions not only freely, but gratuitously. Other American vessels have been subsequently supplied in like manner. We shall mention only two of these.

In 1831 a Japanese junk was blown off to sea, and cast ashore on our northwest coast, near the mouth of Columbia River. After some years they were carried to Macao, and thence taken by the American ship *Morrison*, of New York, to be returned to their own country. Mr. King, a merchant of the latter place, who went with them, laid before the emperor a paper of this tenor: "Our countrymen have not yet visited your country, but only know that, in old times, the merchants of all nations were admitted to your harbors. Afterward, having transgressed the law, they were restricted or expelled. Now we, coming for the first time, and having done no wrong, request permission to carry on a friendly intercourse on the ancient footing." It does not appear that any answer was received from the emperor, or time allowed for its transmission. The vessel was compelled, by hostile preparation on shore, to leave the harbor and put to sea. The shipwrecked mariners were carried back with them to Macao. On this affair being mentioned to some of the Japanese officials at Nagasaki, by Capt. Belcher, in 1845, they said—"We never allow any Japanese to return under such circumstances. We sent a junk full back to the emperor of China, and he is our ally."

An American whaleship, the *Mercator*, Capt. Cooper, cruising to the north of the Japanese Archipelago in 1845, took eleven shipwrecked Japanese from a sinking wreck, and eleven others from a rock on which they had been cast. He proceeded with them to Japan, and anchored in the bay of Jeddo. The next day after coming to anchor, from three hundred and seventy to three

hundred and eighty junks surrounded the vessel, each carrying from fifteen to thirty men, well armed. They took the ship in tow and carried her in front of a town, where they guarded her with three rows of junks. The crowd of people was immense. The ship, awaiting the order of the emperor, remained three days in the bay, the curiosity of the people daily increasing. At the end of this time the captain received orders to depart. They gave him a great quantity of provisions, and returned his arms, which, according to custom, they had taken ashore on his arrival. The boats that had towed him into port took him in tow again in the same number, making a file more than a mile long. The order received from the emperor was in these words : "I am informed, by the mouth of some shipwrecked persons of our country, that these shipwrecked men have been brought home by your ship, and that they have been well treated. But, according to our laws, they must not be brought home, except by the Chinese or Dutch. Nevertheless, in the present case we shall make an exception, because the return of these men by you must be attributed to your ignorance of these laws. In future, Japanese subjects will not be received in like circumstances, and will have to be treated rigorously when returned. You are hereby advised of this, and that you must make it known to others.

"As, in consequence of your long voyage, provisions, and wood and water are wanting on board your ship, we have regard to your request, and whatever you want will be given to you.

"As soon as possible after the reception of this order the ship must depart, and return directly to her own country."

That our vessels might not again do the same ignorantly, the Netherlands minister was requested to send to our government a note, in accordance with the wish of the emperor, calling its attention to an imperial decree promulgated in 1843, in these terms :—

"Shipwrecked persons of the Japanese nation must not be brought back to their country, except on board of Netherlands or Chinese ships ; for, in case these shipwrecked persons shall be brought back on the ships of other nations, they *will not be received*.

"Considering the express prohibition of the Japanese subjects themselves to explore, or to make of their own authority reconnoissances on the coasts or islands of the empire, this prohibition, for greater reason, is extended to foreigners."

The more important attempts, and those more directly in point, and worthy of consideration as indicators of what may be expected from the present expedition, are those formally made in the name and behalf of other governments. A Japanese vessel was wrecked on the coast of Siberia, and the Empress Catharine ordered that such of the crew as had been saved should be conveyed home. They were accordingly sent, and by instructions from the empress were directed to endeavor to establish such friendly relations as might be for the mutual benefits of both countries. They are adjoining neighbors, Japan possessing the southern Kurile Islands, and Russia the northern. Capt. Laxman, who returned the Japanese, and made known the wishes of the Russian sovereign, received this answer in writing :—

"1st. That although their laws inflict perpetual imprisonment on every stranger landing in any part of the Japanese empire, the harbor of Nagasaki excepted, yet in consideration of the ignorance of these laws pleaded by the Russians, and of their having saved the lives of several Japanese subjects, they are willing to waive the strict enforcement of them in the present in-

stance, provided Lieutenant Laxman will promise, for himself and his countrymen, to return immediately to his own country, and never again to approach any part of the coast but the harbor aforesaid.

"2d. That the Japanese government thanks the Russians for the care taken of its subjects, but at the same time informs them that they may either leave them or carry them back again, as they think fit, as the Japanese consider all men to belong to whatever country their destiny may carry them, and where their lives may have been protected.*"

In *L'Univers*, on *histoire et description de tous les peuples*, etc., by M. A. D. B. de Jancigny, the author relates the attempt made by the king of Holland to open some of the ports of Japan to the Commerce of the world. A proposition of this kind from that quarter, would undoubtedly be more likely to meet with acceptance than from any other nation. The Dutch being the only nation who enjoy any commercial advantage or relation with Japan, the proposal comes from them without any suspicion of interested motive. In 1844-5, he says, an attempt was made by the king of Holland to lead the Japanese government to examine seriously if it would not be for the interests of Japan to anticipate the inevitable tendencies of European civilization and Commerce, and to open gradually its ports to other vessels beside the Dutch. This attempt, far from having the result which the generous motive merited, seems, on the contrary, to have confirmed the Japanese in their exclusive system. Drawing, from the example of China, the conclusion that unforeseen events might compel her, in spite of herself, to multiply her points of contract with other nations of the earth, the king remarked that the proximity in which Japan was to the English colonies at Hong-kong and the mouth of the Yang-tse-kiang, now open to European nations, would fatally draw this nation to a near crisis, the consequences of which it would seem prudent to prevent by concessions satisfactory to Europeans. He then solicited the *ziogoon* to open not only Nagasaki, but two or three other ports in Nippon and Yezo to foreign vessels without distinction of flag.

"You will easily understand," added the king of Holland, "that my interest must suggest to me counsels contrary to those I give you, since as long as you persevere in the present system, my nation will alone make a monopoly of your Commerce, but it is precisely the friendship with which you have favored us in preference to other people, that imposes on us the duty of calling your attention to the future which threatens you. If you longer refuse to take the place which you ought to hold among commercial nations, you will be forced in your intrinchements, and be humiliated as the Celestial empire has been. Spare yourself this humiliation, in season, by generous measures, which will conciliate to you the esteem and sympathy of European powers."

The king of Holland, we must think, erred in the motive of fear presented to the emperor, and also in referring to the fact of the English invasion of China, and of her colonies planted in the Celestial empire. If we had desired to present to the *ziogoon* an argument in favor of the present Japanese policy, we should not have known where to look for one more cogent

* The above answer would seem to be mistranslated, as, in the expression of thanks for saving the lives of the Japanese, it appears at variance with the statements given of their law in relation to the criminality of such persons, with the other instances of returning shipwrecked natives, and with the answer to Sir Edward Belcher, unless, as the closing part of the answer seems to show, it was intended only as a courteous expression toward the Russians for having designed it as a kindness—not for any kindness or favor actually done in restoring the men to their country.

to such a courageous and extremely jealous people. Possibly if the king of Holland had addressed his counsels to the *ziogoon* prior to the English attack upon China, avoiding all argument to the fears of the Japanese, we might now be rejoicing in a different result. His letter was *mal-apropos* in season and in tenor.

Thus the two European powers most favorably situated, and from whom the request for an open Commerce would be most likely to be well received, have made the proposal, and, in each case, met a refusal.

In 1846, President Polk dispatched two of our national ships, the *Columbus* and *Vincennes*, to Japan, under the command of Capt. Biddle, to endeavor to open a trade with that country. In his letter to the emperor the president says:—

"I send you an envoy of my own appointment, an officer of high rank in his country, who is no missionary of religion. He goes by my command, to bear to you my greeting and good wishes, and to promote friendship and Commerce between the two countries.

"You know that the United States of America now extends from sea to sea, that the great countries of Oregon and California are parts of the United States, and that from these countries, which are rich in gold and silver and precious stones, our steamers can reach the shores of your happy land in less than twenty days."

"Many of our ships will now pass in every year, and some, perhaps, in every week, between California and China. These ships must pass along the coasts of your empire. Storms and winds may cause them to be wrecked on your shores, and we ask and expect from your friendship and your greatness, kindness for our men, and protection for our property. We wish that our people may be permitted to trade with your people; but we shall not authorize them to break any law of your empire.

"Our object is friendly commercial intercourse and nothing more. You may have productions which we should be glad to buy, and we have productions which might suit your people.

"Your empire contains great abundance of coal; this is an article which our steamers in going from California to China must use. They would be glad that a harbor in your empire should be appointed to which coal might be brought, and where they might always be able to purchase it.

"In many other respects Commerce between your empire and our country would be useful to both. Let us consider well what new interests may arise from these recent events, which have brought our two countries so near together, and what purposes of friendly amity and intercourse this ought to inspire in the hearts of those who govern both countries."

The letter of the president is couched in very courteous and conciliatory terms, and dictated with great prudence. We think, as before intimated, it it would have been still better if all reference to Commerce had been omitted, and all boasting of the greatness of our country been avoided. The answer given to Com. Biddle from the *ziogoon* was in these words:—

"According to the Japanese laws, the Japanese subjects cannot trade, except with the Dutch and Chinese. It will not be allowed that America make a treaty with Japan, or trade with this empire, seeing that this is not permitted to any other nation. What relates to foreign countries is determined at Nagasaki, not here in the bay. Consequently you must depart as soon as possible, and not return again to Japan.*"

* Translated from Jancigny. We have not the original before us.

On the day preceding the departure of the *Columbus* and *Vincennes* from the bay of Yedo, the 28th July, a French ship of war, commanded by Admiral Cecille, entered the harbor of Nagasaki. It does not appear, however, that the admiral made any proposal for a trade or intercourse with the country, but merely requested a supply of water and provisions.

As to the idea of forcing Japan to alter her laws or policy for our benefit, such a thing can find no sanction in an American Congress. Such an enterprise can never proceed from our shores. Every citizen of this country has that in his breast which repels, at once, such a suggestion. We are not ready, we shall never, as a nation, be ready for such villainy. But we consider it extremely doubtful if any nation in the world, except Great Britain, has the physical ability to accomplish it. If it should ever be done, it will be by that power. But it will be no Chinese, nor no Mexican war. Anything less than an armada of thirty of the heaviest and best ships of the navy of Great Britain or the United States, with 100,000 well-appointed troops, would do better to try its tactics and its metal on some other shores. The English may find it holiday work to overrun India and China, but when they put themselves in front of a Tartar with a sword better than their own and with death awaiting him behind if he suffers the invader to advance they will find every inch of ground they measure with their feet on Japanese soil, will be well paid for. Russia and France are too far distant for such an attempt. England has an advantage from her neighboring possessions in India, where her ships may be refitted and her armies recruited. It is true the Japanese musketeer is not equal to the infantry soldier of England. His musket is a matchlock, and his infantry tactics may be very inferior. But he has cannon, and makes his own powder; he has a horse, and knows well its use; he has arrows, and knows how to point them; and a pike, which, if not so good as the opposing metal, will, in some cases, be found "available."

There seems even less chance by direct negotiation or solicitation. The Japanese despise trade and traders. The private soldier holds a grade above the richest merchant. Their own country supplies all their wants, or nearly, and their limited trade with China and the Dutch leaves them nothing to want for convenience or luxury. Commerce is not needed for government revenue. The princes are obliged to support the army, each one his quota of troops. There is no civil list, as with us, swallowing millions of revenue. And whatever is required for the support of the emperor and his court is easily made up by the feudal contributions, or by tithes, taxes, and levies upon the people. All connected with the government, therefore, have no interest in promoting foreign Commerce, and the four higher classes look upon all persons concerned in trade as inferior, and in a degree degraded. The extreme jealousy of this people has been spurred by the English war upon China, and it may be supposed they would be, since that event, more convinced of the safety and necessity of their policy, and more determined rigorously to maintain it.

Commerce must open its own way to Japan. Let our steamers stop at Nagasaki regularly for coal, let all our ships, which can do so, put into that port for refreshments, let them be acquainted with our character; and if they find it good, if our men are guilty of no wrong there, in a course of years they may relax their policy so far as to admit some one article of ours, or give us such license as the Dutch; and so, gradually and easily, Commerce may work its own way to a more extended trade.

The trade with Japan does not promise great results. The Dutch factory found it rather a losing business, and were glad to give up the largest part of it to the government. But if it were gold in exchange for iron, weight for weight, our government will not take it by robbery.

ART. II.—COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES.

NO. IV.

RALEIGH'S CHARTER AND EXPEDITIONS—AMIDOS AND BARLOW, GRENVILLE, ETC.—EVENTS TO 1600—REVIEW OF ACHIEVEMENTS WITHIN THE UNITED STATES UP TO 1600—DITTO IN THE REST OF AMERICA—CAUSES OF NEGLECT OF THE UNITED STATES—GROSNOLD'S VOYAGE, TRADE AND FISHERY AT NEW ENGLAND—PRING—GILBERT—DE MONTE—WEYMOUTH—NORTH AND SOUTH VIRGINIA COMPANIES—COMMERCIAL FEATURES OF THEIR CHARTERS—SETTLEMENTS—TRADE, FISHERY, ETC.—DUTCH TRADING STATIONS AT HUDSON RIVER—TOBACCO—JAMES'S REGULATIONS THEREON—VIRGINIA SLAVE TRADE—SMITH'S TRADING AND FISHING VOYAGE TO NEW ENGLAND—PLYMOUTH COUNCIL, ETC.

GILBERT, failing in his efforts to colonize America, and perishing in his second expedition, in 1583, RALEIGH, the next year, renewed the patent for six years longer. This instrument gave him the right of *exclusive trade* and unlimited powers as lord proprietor, over all heathen lands which he should find between the 33d and 40th degrees of north latitude. The right of visit, however, was reserved to vessels overtaken by stress of weather, or those of the kingdom engaged in the Newfoundland fisheries, a business in which English vessels had been engaged for near seventy years, and the French for ten or fifteen years longer. One-fifth of the gold and silver that might be found, was stipulated also, as in most of the patents subsequently granted, as the property of the crown.

Under this charter, Raleigh commenced that series of efforts for colonizing the new world, which, pursued with a perseverance worthy of a better fortune, have, notwithstanding their utter failure, connected his name forever with the history of its leading nation. The same year, Capts. Amidos and Barlow were dispatched, with two small vessels, on an expedition, chiefly of exploration. Reaching the coast of North Carolina by way of the Canaries and West Indies, they opened a trade with the Indians, exchanging iron and other metals, of which the Indians had none except a little copper, and which they were very eager to obtain, for *furs and skins*, principally. For a tin dish, twenty skins, and for a copper kettle, fifty skins were obtained. Each skin was worth about a noble. Several weeks were spent in traffic, along the coast of North Carolina, at Pamlico Sound and other parts, and in September they returned to England, having made a very profitable voyage, and, as would be expected under the circumstances, setting forth the virtues of the country, in their report, in glowing terms. It is hard for people to be in ill humor with that which is the occasion of profit to them. To the merchants of England goodly promise was held out in the abundance of valuable peltry, of which there was but a very insufficient supply in Europe, and moreover in the unbounded wealth of the soil, "the most plentiful, sweete, fruitfull, and wholesome of all the worlde;" in the "above fourteene severall sweete smelling timber trees," needed by England for constructing her ships; in the growth of "*sassafras* and divers other medic-

inable hearbes and trees," then deemed of the highest account in physic; in the luxuriance of the vine, furnishing the Indians with wine which they could have drank through the whole year, but for want of casks to keep it in winter. Even the precious spices and drugs, were promised to enrich their trade, the water drunk by the Indians on the failure of wine being "sodden with *ginger* in it, and black *sinamon*" as well as different herbs. All these were to be obtained so *cheaply*, too—and to encourage further this profitable intercourse, the natives were represented as "most gentle, loving, and faithfull, voide of all guile, and such as live after the manner of the golden age."

Enthusiasm rose at once to a high pitch, and Raleigh was easily enabled to fit out his second expedition in 1585, of seven vessels and 108 emigrants for permanent colonization. Sir Richard Grenville, the naval head of the enterprise, followed Amidos and Barlow in the West India route, the object in taking that course, being with those and others after them, not as has been stated, that they feared to attempt a more direct course, but to make captures of the richly laden ships, bound homeward to Spain from her colonial possessions. Roanoke Island, at which the former adventurers had traded, was reached, some barter carried on, a settlement formed on the Island, and the *search for gold* commenced, arrangements being made with the Indians to provide them with regular supplies of food, at regular stations on the journey inward. The Indians failed of their contract, and the explorers were obliged to eat dog-flesh on the way back.

England had, at this time, four objects of interest in America, to each of which her attention was strongly directed, all having a commercial reference, and all (except two) directed to different points, viz:—1. The *Newfoundland fishery*, the oldest of these objects, which had grown up very fast since Gilbert's first voyage, and which the English now attempted, ineffectually, to make exclusive, capturing several vessels of other nations loading there with fish and furs, in 1585. To encourage this fishery and also shipbuilding, as well as to multiply seamen, a statute enforced by heavy penalties the rigid observation of church regulations, forbidding flesh on *one hundred and fifty-three days in the year*. 2. A *northwest passage* to China and India, for the discovery of which a company existed in London, which sent out Capt. John Davis, in 1585, who entered the straits on the west side of Greenland, which still bear his name. By this route, of the existence of which no doubt was felt, it was hoped to rival Portugal in the trade of the East, if not to monopolize it altogether. 3. And at present, the leading object, the *plunder of the rich Commerce of Spain* with her American colonies. Sir Francis Drake, to whose care this branch of the English interest in America was, at this time, mainly confided, took St. Augustine, Florida, in 1585, extorted a heavy ransom from Carthagena, in New Grenada, and sacked and pillaged St. Domingo, acquiring a booty, in all, of £600,000 during the year, a much more profitable result than seeking wealth in Virginia. 4. And last, *colonization*, which completely failed in 1585, the famished settlers of Virginia going back to England with Drake, who chanced to visit them on his return from his marauding expedition. The first and third of these were considered *paying* enterprises—the second and fourth had been only, except as to some incidental benefits, *losing* attempts.

But Raleigh was not yet discouraged. In 1587, (while Davis was on his third northwestern voyage,) he dispatched another expedition of three ships with 150 emigrants. This colony was destroyed the next year, by starvation

or by the Indians, a result due to the ambition or cupidity of their governor, John White, who being sent with supplies to them, could not avoid the temptation of cruising among the West Indies for Spanish ships, which he found, but so much to his own disadvantage that he returned to England, and left the colony to its fate, the arrival of the Invincible Armada engaging then all attention in England.*

In 1589, Raleigh disposed of his patent to a company of London merchants, without any condition but that they should establish and maintain trade between England and America, and if gold and silver were found, that he should receive a share. He had expended over £40,000, nearly all his fortune, upon his projects, and Virginia was without an English inhabitant. The new company made very little effort, attempting no new colony, and the charter being near expiring, soon gave up all thought of their American domain.

To show how the thoughts of English adventurers and merchants were engaged during the rest of the century, and the first years of the next, we will briefly mention the leading enterprises of the period in question. In 1591, the *Turkey* company was formed, mainly for trade to the Levant, sending three ships, however, to India, in their first year, and three more in 1596. Meanwhile public and private expeditions ravaged the coast of Brazil and Spanish America, among the leaders of which were Cavendish and Sir James Lancaster. In 1594, the English took 39 Spanish ships engaged in the American trade; at Pernambuco, alone, Lancaster took 15 ships, loaded from the merchandise of an East India carrack wrecked there, and with sugar, cotton, and Brazil wood. Such enterprises were more profitable than fruitless efforts at colonization and the building up of legitimate Commerce in America, and suppressed any remaining inclination, if there were any, toward these once favorite projects. The same year Barentz was sent from England for the discovery of the northwest passage. In 1595, Raleigh sailed up the Orinoco, in search of the fabulous kingdom of *El Dorado*. In 1596-7, the Spaniards and English were exploring the western coast of America northwardly, Sir Francis Drake reaching as high as 48° north. In 1598, the French established a small fishing colony at Sable Island, 90 miles S. E. from Nova Scotia, consisting of but 40 men, which lasted seven years. In 1598, it is asserted, that persons in the employ of a Dutch Greenland company, selected the site of the city of New York as a convenient place for passing the winter months. The same year the English whale fishery at Greenland commenced.

At the year 1600 the region of America comprising the territory of the United States contained but a single settlement. Except for the little Spanish colony at St. Augustine, it was as entirely unoccupied by Europeans as in the year 1500. For a whole century the resources which it possessed for the establishment of a vast Commerce, and for the nourishment of colonies into mighty empires, were offered in vain. All the achievement effected consisted of this—Cabot for the English, and Venezzani for the French, had explored most of the Atlantic coast; the Spaniards had completed the survey from Carolina southwardly, and had traced the whole Gulf shore; Nar-

* The grand Armada sent by Spain against England, in 1588, consisted of 130 ships, of which 100 were larger than any before built, carrying 19,795 men, beside 34,000 in flat boats—64,000 in all.

According to Raleigh, the English had, in 1588, 150 sail of merchant ships, of 150 tons average—22,500 tons, carrying 6,000 men, 40 to a ship, showing that they were used chiefly at that time as privateers. The Queen's navy consisted of 40 ships of her own, and 110 hired of her subjects, carrying 24,100 men.

væz and De Soto had made fruitless attempts at conquest—or rather had searched vainly for gold mines in the Southern States; D'Ayllon had carried a cargo of slaves from South Carolina to Hayti: the Huguenots had made ineffectual efforts to colonize South Carolina and Florida, the Spaniards replacing them in the latter; and Raleigh's efforts in North Carolina had resulted only in leaving the bones of some Europeans to bleach on its soil. Connected with all these efforts had been a traffic with the Indians for furs and skins, or fish, game, and corn, which had given some profit to European merchants; and in four cases vessels had been built on the shores of the United States and launched in its waters, but only to escape from a country deemed so inhospitable.

The success attending efforts made during this time in other parts of the continent, affords a remarkable contrast to the results in this quarter. The Spaniards were in the enjoyment of a vast colonial empire in America. Cuba, when but eight years settled, was able to undertake and complete the great object of the conquest of such a kingdom as Mexico, while yet colonizing also other places around. She had now a population of about 20,000 whites. Hayti, Jamaica, Porto Rico, and other of the larger West India Islands, had been vigorously colonized, and furnished large exports of gold, sugar-cane, tobacco, to Spain, receiving in return a great amount of Spanish manufactures and produce. On the continent, Mexico, a province of noble dimensions, was populating with astonishing rapidity. The capital city contained at this time not less than 50,000 Spaniards, beside as many as 200,000 Indians. Such was the splendid metropolis of Spain's American empire. It had been about fourscore years occupied by Spaniards, and was of more than seven times the white population of any English city founded in America during the last century, at that age. Mexico held commercial intercourse with the West Indies and Spain, on the Atlantic, and with the East Indies by the Pacific. It appears that many years before this time the Viceroy of Mexico actually contemplated the *conquest of China*.* Guatemala, New Granada, Venezuela, Quito, Buenos Ayres, Brazil, (now held by Spain, in virtue of her dominion over Portugal,) Paraguay, and Chili, were all respectable provinces, while Peru, though behind Mexico in population, excelled her in wealth. The line of Spanish settlements extended along the coast, on the Atlantic, from Florida to the River La Plata, and on the Pacific from Acapulco to Patagonia. There were several hundred thousand Spaniards in America, and Spain had drawn thence, in the precious metals alone, an average of \$3,000,000, from 1500 to 1545, and of \$11,000,000 from 1545 to 1800†—in all not less than \$740,000,000, the effect of which had been to augment the amount in circulation in Europe to about five times the quantity in existence there in 1500. Beside sugar-cane, &c., Brazil wood (for dyeing) had become an important article of export, and the potato, from America, had been spread over the south of Europe, and was advancing into Germany and England.

It was not for want of ability that other nations of Europe (excepting Portugal) had effected nothing in America, beyond the resort of one or two of them to the fishing grounds at Newfoundland and Greenland, while Spain has accomplished results so splendid. The Dutch, according to Sir Walter Raleigh, had, at 1600, as many vessels as any other *eleven* nations of Europe, building about 1,000 tons yearly. But the fisheries of the British seas, and

* Murray's Discoveries in Asia, vol. iii.

† Humboldt.

the carrying trade of Europe, had hitherto engaged all their attention, and their first remote enterprise, just beginning, was extended the opposite way to America, to the Indian Ocean. Such sovereigns as Henry VIII. and Elizabeth ruled England within this century, and had advanced her to a high position among the European powers. France had witnessed the splendid reigns of Francis the First, the rival of Charles the Fifth, and of Henry of Navarre, and was becoming the leading manufacturing nation of Europe.

The principal cause for the neglect of the United States region, was the failure of the search for the precious metals there. But had these existed in any such quantity as in Mexico and Peru, Spain would, no doubt, as being first and most energetic in the search, have made the first discovery, and have enlarged her colonial limits by the whole area of the mineral field. Of what account was the feeble search of Raleigh's colonies, and the Huguenots hardly venturing from the coast, or even the attempts of the Virginia plantation, after this time, compared with the grand exploration of eleven at least of the States of this Union, made by De Soto in 1539-43? It was only by the apparent absence of the precious metals, then, that this part of America was kept open until after 1600, for colonization by other powers than Spain; and had she first occupied it, it cannot be doubted that she would have been able to hold it, since her rivals were unable to wrest from her any other of her many American provinces, except one or two West India Islands. Even in the absence of gold and silver the Spaniards were beforehand, having, as we have remarked, the only European colony existing at this time within the United States, at St. Augustine, Florida. Between this place and Cuba some little trade was kept up—the only Commerce, except the traffic of the Indians with each other, carried on within the region between Newfoundland and the West Indies.

But gold and silver in *other* parts of America, as we have already noticed, tended to lure away the attention of the other nations from central North America. The achievements of Spain, while furnishing an incentive to the occupation of the unappropriated parts of America, yet counteracted the very influence they were calculated to produce. It was a much more profitable enterprise to search for gold in Spanish hulks, and to exact it from provincial seaports as the price of safety, than to hunt amid hills and river-courses destitute of the smallest auriferous infusion.

We have alluded to the East Indies, of which the discovery by the way of the Cape of Good Hope was about cotemporary with that of America, as drawing attention greatly from the latter. The attention of the Portuguese, then the most adventurous people of Europe, was concentrated almost exclusively in this direction during the whole century—they had even visited China soon after 1500, and were established in Japan before 1550. Busy as they were in America, the Spaniards had not neglected India either; in fact, all the voyages noticed of the English and French toward America between 1500 and 1600, except those of Gilbert and Raleigh, had reference mainly to the discovery of a northwestern route to the eastern parts of Asia, in the hope, by a shorter channel, of wresting from the Portuguese the whole, or a share at least, of that trade which the latter had found so valuable. Not less than twelve English voyages, and seven by the French, were made during the century for this object, one of the English expeditions consisting of Froisher's squadron of fifteen ships.

Africa, neglected as it had been before the discovery of the western continent, also assisted, at this time, to draw attention from North America, by

its connection with South America and the West Indies. The slave trade between these places was entered into by the English as early as 1562, and had become of sufficient importance to be the patented object of a great company in England. Thus the commercial enterprise of England looked everywhere but to the region which would afford it the most profit of all. Chartered monopolies pursued their objects of gain in all other parts of the world, but North America was not deemed worth the attention of a company, and the fisheries, regarded as its only point of value, were left free to individual effort. The prospect of any use being soon made of its boundless resources, was indeed very poor at the opening of the seventeenth century.

After a suspension of the English sailing toward Virginia, (as the region of the United States was then indefinitely called,) some of the disgust occasioned by the failures of Raleigh had subsided, and Bartholomew Gosnold was sent out in a single vessel with thirty-two men, twelve of them intended for the beginning of a colony. Gosnold sailed directly westward, (*not* the first, however, who had done so, as is often alledged, for Cabot and Gilbert, and all the northwestern navigators had preceded him in the route.) Gosnold found fish very plenty around Cape Cod, and extolled this coast as far better for fishing resorts than Newfoundland. One of the narrators of the voyage predicts that, "forasmuch as merchants are diligent inquisitors after gains, they will soon remove their trade from Newfoundland" to this place, where there is better climate, more security against pirates, and better harbors, beside requiring less expense for outfit, and a shorter voyage. But fish was not all the wealth here found; for there were "many commodities besides, of good importance and value," and the land was described as altogether the goodliest they ever saw. Gosnold trafficked with the Indians at Buzzards' Bay, in Massachusetts, the place particularly alluded to in the above, and from this trade, and the collections of his men, obtained a cargo of sassafras, (very valuable then in medicine,) cedar and other woods, various gums from the forest, furs, skins, and fish. He returned without making a settlement, his intended colony being too weak to leave behind, and beside not wishing to lose their share in the profits of the voyage, which was in a pecuniary light very successful. They arrived home in five weeks, the whole adventure occupying but four months, which was far shorter than any previous voyage to America. Of course, the report given, confirmed by the voracious witnesses under the deck, re-awakened the interest of merchants and fishermen, especially in the forgotten Virginia. Profit was clearly to be made there, and no farther incitement than the knowledge of that fact could be needed.*

In 1603 several merchants of Bristol sent out two vessels, under Martin Pring, who explored the coast from Penobscot Bay to Martha's Vineyard, and traded at different points with the Indians for sassafras, furs, &c., fully confirming Gosnold's report. In the same year Capt. Gilbert, sent out from London, visited the coast of New England and traded with the Indians, extending his voyage to the West Indies. These voyages were continued by the London and Bristol merchants yearly after the voyage of Gosnold, but having reference only to trade and the fisheries.

In 1603 Henry IV. of France granted to the Sieur de Monts the territories in America between 40° and 46° north latitude, which includes all of New England, New York, Pennsylvania, Nova Scotia, and part of New

* In 1603, Weymouth and Knight were sent from England in search of the northwest passage.

Brunswick and Canada, the object being the *fur trade*, which had been carried on by the French at their fisheries and in the St. Lawrence. In 1604 he proceeded to America and established a colony, at first on Schoodic Island, in the St. Croix River, and since the adjustment of the northeast boundary in 1843, within the limits of the State of Maine. Here, and at different places in Nova Scotia and at the St. Lawrence, he trafficked with the Indians, coasting also along as far as Cape Cod, where he intended to establish afterward a second colony, and finally removing his settlement to Port Royal, in Acadia, (Nova Scotia.) Champlain at the same time was trading on the St. Lawrence.

In 1605 the Earl of Southampton and Lord Arundel of Wardour fitted out a vessel from England, under Capt. George Weymouth, who sailed up the Penobscot River, the country adjoining being remarked as the finest they had ever seen. Some of his men, who had sailed with Raleigh up the *Oronoco* in 1595, in his search for El Dorado, put the Penobscot far ahead of that great river—the *Oronoco* being 1,500 miles long, the Penobscot 250 miles! They trafficked here with the Indians, obtaining fine furs at very cheap rates for beads, knives, combs, &c. It is well to remark here, that as trade of this kind was the leading object of these voyages, all the vessels thus sent were well provided with such small articles as were most likely to take the fancy of the Indians. The "True Relation" published of this voyage confirmed the previous accounts, and gave much additional information in regard to the resources and advantages for Commerce of this part of America.

The same year a ship fitted out from London reached Long Island, sowed wheat there, as Gosnold had done at an island in Buzzards' Bay, and traded for furs with the Indians at Connecticut River, returning to London with a valuable cargo.

In the progress of these voyages arose a constantly increasing idea of the value of Virginia among the merchants of England. The coast claimed by England was found to extend through above eleven degrees of latitude, in a temperate climate, with noble rivers and harbors, and everywhere displaying a luxuriant fertility, and abundant material for supporting colonies, and establishing an enlarged trade. The waters were abundantly stored, the wealth of the forests was exhaustless; of furs, the means of supply seemed illimitable; and what variety of production would not the soil, so bountiful in its wild state, yield to regular cultivation? The drugs and spices of the East might be transplanted here, and thrive with all the aromatic virtues distilled in the oriental gardens; and as the idea of those times associated wealth of soil with subterraneous and all other riches, the hope of silver and gold and precious stones again revived.

Accordingly, in 1606, the two great associations of *adventurers* for trade and colonization, the North and South Virginia Companies, were formed—the latter composed of wealthy merchants belonging to the city of London, the foremost mercantile men of England, with some noblemen and gentlemen favorably disposed toward the profession, and not without practical interest therein. The other company was composed of the merchants less wealthy, but yet of most respectable means, belonging to Bristol, the third commercial city of England, Plymouth, and other towns of the west of England, with a proportion of estated gentlemen of high influence, similar to that of London. The charters provided that whatever was necessary to the sustenance or Commerce of the colonies to be established, should be *exported*

free from England during seven years, and as a farther encouragement, James granted them *liberty of trade with all nations*, and appropriated beforehand the revenues that might be collected in the colonial ports, by light duties and fines from foreign vessels and commodities, for twenty-one years, as a fund for the benefit of the colonies. They were allowed also to restrict their trade, if they chose, and to detain all ships trading at the colonies without their permission. The liberty of *coining money* for their own use was also granted. One-fifth of all the gold and silver found, and one-fifteenth of the copper were to go to the crown. Such were the principal commercial features of these remarkable charters, as liberal toward the colonies as they were illiberal in regard to their political condition, which was an abject dependence upon the crown and the companies, themselves but the creatures of the king, without any intervention of the parliament.

The North Virginia Company at once sent out a vessel of 55 tons,* with 29 persons, under Capt. Chalons, to form a settlement at the place visited by Pring and Weymouth. Chalons, going by way of the West Indies, was captured; and a second vessel which followed with supplies, under Pring, not finding the colony or any trace of it, returned after some farther explorations.

In December of the same year, sailed the first expedition of the South Virginia Company, consisting of 105 emigrants, mostly very poorly calculated for the enterprise, the naval conduct being confided to Capt. John Smith and Newport, who were accompanied also by Gosnold, the three being among the ablest seamen of the time. They proceeded by way of the Canaries and the West Indies, and being driven northwardly by a storm, entered the Chesapeake, and in April, 1607, founded JAMESTOWN. During the first year, their dependence for food was partly on the supplies sent from England, and partly on the trade with the Indians. Observing the straits of the colonists, the Indians, as in the case of the Huguenot colony in Florida, in 1564, raised the prices of provisions to an exorbitant amount—a step which might have proved fatal to the colonists but for the energy of John Smith, who undertook the regulation of the market, and by the awe which he infused into the Indians, succeeded in his effort. The Indian harvest that autumn was very plentiful, and as prosperity usually disposes all men toward good nature, the red provision dealers were content to carry on a fair traffic, and even to give something of their abundance to the poor colonists.

The same year, the Plymouth Company dispatched another expedition, which arrived and left 45 men on the coast of Maine, at the mouth of the Kennebec. According to Strackey, this colony built, during the year, “a faire pinnacle of thirty tons,” called the “Virginia,” which was the first vessel built in New England, (*not the first within the United States*),† and was twenty-four years in advance of the “Blessing of the Bay,” built in the Massachusetts Bay colony in 1631, and often spoken of as *the first* vessel constructed in the country.‡

In 1608, the Sagadahock colony, (as that in Maine was called,) was broken up and returned to England—an issue which so discouraged the Northern Company, that there was long “no more speech” of renewing the

* The English had at this time but 40 vessels of over 50 tons burden

† See the third number of these articles.

‡ In 1607, Captain Hendrik Hudson sailed in the English service, in search of the northwest passage.

attempt in that quarter. Sir Francis Popham, the governor of the company, however, sent out some vessels to the same coast for fishing and the fur trade, upon his own account, and these adventures being still profitable, others followed. Thenceforward vessels from England annually visited the coasts of Maine and Massachusetts (particularly the former) for these objects, and it is stated by Mr. Sabine, that at least one vessel's crew wintered on the coast before Plymouth was settled.

In 1608, more emigrants arriving at Jamestown, and the company sending out word of their desire for gold, a mania was excited, and everybody's wits, but those of John Smith, seemed turned by the passion for the yellow metal. A ship was loaded with some "gilded dirt," as Smith called it, and carried to England, where it was again unloaded, at loss of the whole expense of those operations. This turn of employment tended to keep the colony yet longer dependent upon the intercourse with the Indians for the main part of their subsistence. While the fever was raging, Smith devoted himself to the service as hard, and far more useful, of exploring the Chesapeake and its tributary rivers. In two voyages, in an open boat, occupying three months of the summer, he navigated over 3,000 miles, passing far up the Susquehannah and the Potomac, and even penetrating the land. He had intercourse and effected treaties with many tribes, and, publishing his adventures under the title of his *Sixth Voyage to America*, gave to England the first full and accurate account, in fact the first real description of any sort, which she had, of the nature and capacities of any part of her American possessions.

Another object desired by the company, was the discovery of the South Sea, (as the Pacific was then called,) to which their patent extended westwardly. The narrow width of the continent at the explored parts of Mexico and Central America, was supposed to continue into the higher latitudes, and they hoped on the *other shore* of their possessions to find opulent Indian kingdoms, or to discover from these the much-sought passage between ocean and ocean; or, failing of that, to carry on from that coast a trade directly with India and China, or with the rich islands in the farther sea. Newport set out on the search for the desired coast, although Smith derided the project, and Powhatan refused guides for so wild an adventure as the search for *salt water beyond the mountains*. Newport reached the foot of the mountains, and returned; and we hear no more of the object, although it was long before the error on which it was founded was dissipated.

Among the persons sent over by the company to the colony at this time were goldsmiths, jewellers, &c., and beside these, there were others to teach the colonists the arts of making glass, tar, pitch, ashes, and other naval stores, from which, if not from gold, the company hoped a return for the money they had expended—a point upon which they were very urgent. Fearing neglect from the company, should they fail to attend to this important point, all hands were summoned to make up some sort of a cargo. Some specimens of tar were obtained; but the colony was too young and unprepared for the setting up of the manufactures in question, and the chief application was to the cutting of timber for boards and wainscots, at which hard employment even the *gentlemen* labored, affecting an amusement of the necessity. A cargo was soon made up of cedar and other woods, but its value was entirely beneath the elevated desires and expectations of the company, who continued spending without any prospect of present remuneration.

About this time the charter of De Muntz was revoked, in consequence of the remonstrances of the French merchants against it. He retained, however, a monopoly of the fur trade on the St. Lawrence, and sent out Champlain in 1608, who founded Quebec. Potrin-court, in 1607 or '8, carried to France some wheat and other products grown there, while the Virginia settlement was yet unable to feed itself.

In 1609, the South Virginia Company, not yet discouraged, though so much disappointed, endeavored to insure their end by reorganizing their plans. A new charter was obtained, the company was remodeled, their scheme was enlarged, and a new vigor infused into their efforts. Glowing accounts were published of the fertility, resource, and extent of Virginia, and an active enthusiasm was again excited. Among these publications was a pamphlet entitled "Nova Britaine offering most excellent fruits by planting in Virginia," which stated that *cotton* would grow as well in that province as in Italy. It would seem from this that some experiment had been made which promised success, but it was not followed up. In June, Newport sailed for the colony, with nine ships and over 500 emigrants, the largest colonizing expedition yet sent from England to America. The same year 50 or 60 houses were built, and the colony appeared to be thriving in agriculture and the fishery, and was gradually establishing some few manufactures.

In 1609, the Jesuits from Port Royal established a trading and fishing post and mission at Mount Desert Island, on the coast of Maine.

The same year, also, HENDRIK HUDSON, in the service of the Dutch East India Company, and in search of the northwest passage, for which object he had twice before sailed in the employ of London merchants, visited the coast of the United States in the "Vlie-boat" Half-moon, of 80 tons. Touching the American coast first at Newfoundland, he proceeded south, finding the French engaged in a very active trade at the St. Lawrence River. In passing Cape Cod, his men landed at several points and trafficked with the Indians. Discovering the noble river which bears his name, he ascended as high as Albany, trading along with the Indians, who came at first in great numbers, and exchanged maize and *tobacco* for knives and beads. An assault by the Indians interrupted this intercourse. Finding at Albany that there was no outlet in that direction, he returned.

In 1610, Smith having left Virginia, the hopes of the company, which had seemed about to be realized, were again disappointed, the colony being reduced by Indian war and famine in six months to 60 persons, who had actually embarked for Newfoundland, for the purpose of scattering themselves among the fishing vessels, when they met reinforcements and supplies in the river.

While the efforts of the English to establish commercial colonies in America had met with such poor success, their yearly adventures to Newfoundland, directed only with reference to the wealth of its waters, had a much different result. It was estimated by Sir Wm. Monson, that from the discovery of that island by Cabot up to 1610, the fisheries there had furnished annually to England an average clear profit of £120,000, beside occasioning a large increase of shipping and of mariners, particularly in the western ports of England. A company was formed in 1610 by the merchants of London and Bristol for colonizing Newfoundland, and a settlement was planted.

Claiming the region discovered by Hudson, the Dutch East India Com-

pany in 1610, sent out a ship with merchandise for traffick with the Indians at Hudson River. By this voyage, the *fur trade* of the Dutch, so long and extensively pursued here, was opened, and to facilitate it, several stations (not a regular colony) were formed on Manhattan Island. Successful in this enterprise, the Dutch sent over more ships in the following years, and in a short time a lucrative trade was established.

Lord Delaware, the governor of Virginia, returning to England in 1611, the company seriously questioned him as to the prospects of their own remuneration from the colony. Delaware gave a decidedly favorable report, declaring it wonderfully fertile in corn and wine, and well adapted to rearing cattle, beside possessing much other resource. He declared his readiness to invest all his fortune in the colony. This report determined the company on further perseverance. The king soon after encouraged them by adding the Bermudas to Virginia, and by allowing them a lottery, which in ten years produced £29,000, and was called "the real food by which Virginia was nourished."

Up to this time the colony had been managed upon a *public stock* system, the labor of each man being appropriated by the general body, and each drawing his subsistence from the common result. This system was one of the most potent causes of the failure of remuneration to the company, as six or seven men, it was estimated, accomplished no more than one should have done under the individual system. The latter was, however, now gradually introduced, private property was soon completely established, liberal grants of land were made to the cultivators, and things soon began to wear a better aspect.

Meantime the voyages from England to the coast of North Virginia, or Norumbrega, as it was sometimes called, (New England,) for fishing and the fur trade, were continued.*

By 1613, it seems, the people of Virginia had extended their fishing voyages as far as the coast of Maine; for Capt. Argal, afterwards governor of Virginia, was wrecked this year at the Penobscot, while on such an expedition. Learning here of the French colony at Mount Desert, he was dispatched by the colonial authorities on his return, with a force of *eleven armed fishing vessels* belonging to the colony, to vindicate the claims of England to all that region. He broke up the settlement, and proceeding onward, reduced Port Royal, in Nova Scotia, (settled in 1605,) which, although a small colony, had prospered in the fur trade and the fishery, being all the while at peace with the Indians. On his return, he entered the Hudson, and compelled the Dutch traders there to acknowledge English sovereignty. Argal's adventure to America was like that of many other individuals of the colony, a commercial speculation. His partner in trade was the Earl of Warwick.

In 1613, an attempt was made to plant a second English colony in Newfoundland, by a new company, and the monopoly of the Greenland Whale fishery was given by the king to a Greenland Whaling Company, which,

* Pirates had for several years harassed and plundered the fishermen at Newfoundland, and in 1612, Peter Easton, a noted freebooter, made himself complete master of the seas in that region, and levied a general contribution on the vessels employed in fishing. From those found at Conception Bay, he impressed 100 men for his own fleet.

The same year, James Hall and William Baffin, from England, were in Baffin's Bay, in search of the northwest passage.

Canada, at this time, was involved in religious disputes, between the Calvinists and Catholics, which much injured the fur trade, the great object of settlement there. But more serious yet was the Indian war, which lasted from 1612 to 1620, greatly distressing the colony.

with seven armed ships, drove from the upper seas four private English ships and fifteen Dutch and French vessels, forcing some other French ships allowed to remain, to pay a tribute for the privilege.*

1614. A grant of exclusive Commerce for three years at the Hudson River, was made by the States-General of Holland to the "United New Netherlands Company." The company sent out a governor, built a fort, and pushed their trade up the river.

Capt. Smith, now entirely disconnected from the London company's colony, turned his attention earnestly toward *North Virginia*. In 1614, he persuaded four merchants of London to fit him out with two vessels, on a voyage of conjoined trade—fishery and exploration. The inert Plymouth Company offered no opposition. The whale fishery, which he first essayed, failed. But near Monhegan Island, on the coast of Maine, he caught, by boat fishing, 40,000 codfish, which he dried there on the shore, and 7,000 more were pickled. By traffick with the Indians, he collected also a large amount of martin, beaver, and other furs—his whole cargo being valued at about £1,500, which rendered it a very successful voyage for those times. Leaving the rest employed in this business, he landed with eight men and proceeded into the interior, after which he explored the coast from the Penobscot to Cape Cod, making a map of the region, and naming the country, as expressive of its value, *NEW ENGLAND*. While thus engaged, Thomas Hunt, left in charge of the other ships, inveigled thirty Indians on board, and, proceeding to Malaga, sold them as slaves—a step which caused the sacrifice of Capt. Hobson and several of the crew of the vessel which next visited that part of the coast. On his return, Smith published a full account of his voyage, highly eulogizing New England, and describing it as immensely more valuable for the fishery than Newfoundland. Here, he says, "there is victual to feed us; wood of all sorts to build boats, ships, or barges; the fish at our doors; pitch, tar, masts, and yards." Crews sharing £6 or £7 a piece yearly at Newfoundland, would divide £14 in New England. He regarded New England, indeed, as superior to any other uninhabited place that he had ever seen.

Awakened by Smith's efforts, the Plymouth Company made another effort to colonize their domain, sending Smith with two vessels and *fifteen* emigrants. He was driven back by a storm, sailed again with one vessel, was taken by a French pirate, and carried into Rochelle; and the Plymouth Company sunk into its old apathy.

In 1615 the New Netherlands Company widened greatly the relations of their settlement, (numbering thirty souls,) and extended their Commerce by a treaty with the Five Nations occupying the upper country, the tribes which were at war with the French in Canada. This treaty was never broken while the Dutch remained in possession of their settlements here. Extending their posts up the river, the Dutch now built a fort at Albany, (called Fort Orange,) and at about the same time formed a station at the mouth of Connecticut River. Their trade, confined mainly to the exchange of European goods of small value for fine furs and skins, had become of great importance.†

* Commerce of England in 1613—Imports, £2,141,151; exports, £2,090,640; customs on exports, £26,793; merchants' gains, estimated, £300,000.

† In 1615, the English had 250 vessels at Newfoundland, and sent a commissioner with judicial powers to settle disputes and preserve order among the fishermen and colonists. The English fishery was flourishing, and the product was sent to nearly all parts of Europe.

The late voyage of Smith to New England occasioned the sending, in 1616, of four ships from London and two from Bristol to the coast of Maine, for fish and oil. The whole six obtained full fares near the Island of Monhegnor, which became a noted fishing station, and, carrying their cargoes to Spain and the Canary Islands, (afterwards valuable markets of New England,) obtained high prices and made excellent voyages.

In 1616, Raleigh, after having suffered twelve years' confinement, on conviction of an alledged conspiracy to dethrone James I, was released, and, unable to abandon America, was granted a charter by the king, authorizing him to visit any uninhabited parts of that continent, in order "to discover *some commodities* necessary and profitable for the subjects of these our kingdoms." One-fifth the precious metals and stones to go to the king.*

Tobacco comes this this year first into notice as a product of Virginia, although before cultivated. It had now become an article of export, and was planted even in the public ways of Jamestown. It had been found more profitable than any other article of culture or manufacture which had been essayed. After the failure of the earnest attempts to find gold and to establish different manufactures, the wished-for source of profit appeared in an unexpected quarter—"a dingy weed of pungent taste and odor," offensive on first use, and, in fact, an actual poison, and attended always with most "disagreeable accompaniments," found "on the wild meadows and riverbanks." The Spaniards had proved the singular attractions of this weed, and others had caught a relish from them. The colonists in Virginia had tried its power upon themselves, and now were to reward the effort and expenditure of their proprietary company, by converting Great Britain into a nation of tobacco chewers and smokers, holding in their hands the monopoly of supply. The taste in Great Britain had not, however, to be entirely created at this time, as some had been brought home in the early expeditions of Raleigh, &c., and much had been taken in the Spanish vessels captured by the English, and much of late was brought in the way of direct trade from the Spanish West Indies. As early, indeed, as 1603, his first year, James had issued a document—*Commissio pro Tobacco*—enacting, that whereas this drug, brought in before in small quantities, and used only as a physic by the better sort, had now become "excessively taken by a number of riotous and disorderly persons of mean and base condition," the heavy duty of 6s. 8d. per pound should be added to the previous duty upon import of 2d. per pound.

The charter of the New Netherlands Company expiring in 1617, three years now followed, in which the trade of the Hudson River was disposed of by special licenses to individuals.

Raleigh returned from his voyage in 1618, having found no gold, whereupon, in revenge upon himself of his ill success, conjoined with the craven desire of pleasing the king of Spain, some of whose American possessions Raleigh had visited during the voyage, that contemptible monarch, James the First, a most unworthy successor to the strong-minded Elizabeth, who had ever been the friend of Raleigh—approached as far toward infamy as so feeble a nature could, by causing the *execution* of the noble, and now venerable adventurer, upon the old pretense, referring to events which the lapse of fourteen years had rendered oblivious to the memory of men. So perished a man who did more to direct the enterprise of England toward the United States than any other person of his own or any preceding age, and whose energy

* Baffin, in 1616, again in search of the northwest passage. He sailed as high as 78 degrees N. Le Maire and Schouten discovered Cape Horn.

and devotion to the great object of his life are now, and forever will be, read of with admiration by the millions of the country he vainly endeavored to colonize; while James will be known only as one of "mean and base condition" of mind, to whom the accident of birth degraded a high office, and whose only credit therein is that he was both preceded and followed by men as unworthy of the coronet as himself.

Tobacco had become so extensively cultivated in Virginia, that the British market was overstocked, and the price had in consequence become greatly reduced. The import into England (whither all but that retained for home use was sent) from Virginia, in 1619, was 20,000 pounds, or 180 cwt., a very large quantity for so small a colony, equal to about 33 lbs. per head to the whole population, but a small amount it would seem now to have produced such an effect upon the British market. The use of tobacco was, plainly, yet quite limited.

To remedy the evil of the diminished price, Argal, the governor of Virginia, undertook to enforce a higher rate in the province by statute; James, at the same time, turned his attention toward the colony and its product, and issued a series of regulative measures. He prohibited the sale of tobacco in Great Britain and Ireland without the royal seal to show that the duty had been paid, and an exorbitant valuation was made, that the impost of 5d. a pound might be made to yield 6d. He ordered, further, in order to curtail the production, that there should not be raised above 100 lbs. to each planter in Virginia, and advised them to turn to corn and cattle, and the making of potash and other manufactures. He totally forbid the planting of tobacco in Great Britain, the only act in the series calculated to be of any benefit to the colony. He provided also for the "garbling of tobacco," the good to be separated from the bad, arbitrarily, by judges in England. In the same year, 1619, he issued also his "Counterblast against Tobacco;" but his statutory regulations affected the interests of the planters far more than his *literary* effusions. Finally, he attempted a monopoly of the sale in Great Britain, assuming a pre-emption of the whole import at the uniform low price of 3s. the pound, and reselling it at a large advance to the merchants. He did not succeed, however, in the full enforcement of the monopoly; and, under all these vexatious regulations, the production of tobacco in Virginia continued to increase.

In twelve years, the Virginia Company had expended £80,000 upon this colony, which had yet but 600 inhabitants, and most of the planters designed an ultimate return to England. To remove the unfavorable impressions regarding the colony, the company, in 1619, published a statement describing the richness of Virginia in "all God's natural blessings." It had admirable iron; the finest timber in the world; was capable of yielding, in perfection, tar, pitch, pot and pearl ashes, &c. The main hope, however, was in *silk*, in the production of which Virginia could equal Persia and Italy. And though the attempts, both in silk and wine, had hitherto failed, they would be renewed with ampler means, skill, and care. In regard to tobacco, the odium resting upon it made them silent. To compensate proprietors for want of dividends, and to encourage capital and settlers, it was voted for every £12 10s. of stock subscribed, to grant 100 acres of land, and on its occupation, another hundred. To every emigrant going out at his own expense, fifty acres, on which, after seven years, he should pay a quit-rent of twelve pence. Very advantageous patents were granted to those who undertook to convey emigrants. By these encouragements, and great

efforts on their own part, the company sent over in 1619, twelve ships with 1,261 persons, including 90 females. They arrived in 1620, and the females were sold to the planters for wives at 120 lbs. of tobacco each. The colony now began in reality to prosper. They were, meantime, at perfect peace with the Indians, the company proceeding upon the just and wise principle of occupying no land except by previous purchase of the natives.

In 1619, Captains Darmer and Pocraft, the former having sailed with Smith to New England in 1614, were sent out by Sir Ferdinando Gorges and other members of the Plymouth Company, and carried on the fishery at Maine successfully, besides exploring much of the coast to the southward.

In 1620, the company sent out 800 more emigrants to Virginia. In August, a Dutch man-of-war entered James River, and landed *twenty negroes* for sale, which was the beginning of negro slavery and the slave-trade in the English colonies, although the English had themselves long been engaged in the trade between Africa and the Spanish colonies.

An English company this year introduced tobacco from England into Germany, and thus enlarged the market for Virginia.

In 1620, the Dutch founded Schenectady, sixteen miles northwest of Albany, on the Mohawk River, as a trading post, penetrating thus, for the sake of their trade, far inland, while yet very weak in point of numbers.

Smith, upon escaping from Rochelle, returned to England, and strained every nerve to carry out his project of establishing fishing and trading colonies in New England. He published this year his third or fourth work on New England, treating therein of the "successes of twenty-six ships employed in fishing there within these six yeares." He circulated 7,000 copies of his books and maps at great expense, and traveled from city to city, applying to every man of influence from whom he thought there was anything to be hoped. He complains that he might as well have attempted to "cut rocks with oyster shells." The general apathy seemed invincible—beside, he was regarded as an unlucky man—the worst reputation a man bent on such an enterprise could incur. A most unfair contrast was drawn between the Virginia colony when struggling for existence under his guidance, which alone saved it repeatedly from extinction, and in its present prosperous state, when, as Murray says, "the planters were living in ease and luxury on the juice of the tobacco."

At length his efforts succeeded in arousing the old Plymouth Company again, and the idea was entertained of colonization upon a grand scale—rivaling or excelling the settlement in Virginia. A new charter was obtained, granting to the "Council of Plymouth," as the company was now called, absolute property, with the *exclusive right of settlement, trade, and fishery*, in all lands between 40° and 48° N., and bounded east and west by the two oceans.

This grant, the extent of which could not then be comprehended, embraced New England, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Quebec, and the greater part of the Canadas, (including all the French settlements in this part of North America,) New York, with all the Dutch claim therein, and Pennsylvania. Westward, the southern boundary line runs through the middle of the States of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, and the Indian territory, and includes the northern part of California. The northern limit, passing through Lake Superior, passes thence to the Pacific at about one degree below the

present boundary of the United States. The area thus conveyed, with all its resource and Commerce, exceeds 1,400,000 square miles.

The Council of Plymouth appointed Capt. Smith admiral for life, but the office was the occasion of little service from him, as both he and the company were doomed to more disappointment. A fatality seemed to attend all the efforts made by the Plymouth Company under whatever of its phases. The Council having obtained its charter, and having no obstacle in the way to hinder it from proceeding directly to the accomplishment of its object, laid an inhibition on its own enterprise. For the achievement of the great results which all aimed at and hoped for, a variety of opinion arose as to the means and mode best calculated to the end. Obstinate adhering to their varying ideas, a sharp collision of projects followed, and the division neutralized the executive vigor of the company so that it was unable to take an effective step in any direction. Emigrants would not venture under their auspices; they remained as impotent as before the grand reorganization was effected; and but for a movement in another quarter, of a very different nature, New England might have remained long without a white population, and with no more commercial importance than was afforded by the few annual fishing and trading voyages to its coasts.

Art. III.—JAMES GORE KING.

THE Chamber of Commerce of New York, at a special meeting, held on Wednesday, 5th October, in order to express their sense of the great public loss sustained in the death of JAMES GORE KING, adopted the following among other resolutions:—

Resolved, That the Chamber do declare their sense of the great intelligence and high moral worth of the deceased; of his strictest integrity and honor; of his great public spirit; of his general usefulness; of his liberal Christian charities, and of the high tone and elevation of his manly nature.

Resolved, That the Chamber have no higher example than the character and career of their late associate, to point out to the admiration and imitation of the rising members of the mercantile community.

Of him thus commemorated by his associates—and in the spirit of the second resolution, which holds him up as an example to those who are coming forward on the scene which he so long adorned—it is proposed to present a faithful memoir, which cannot, it is believed, be without interest or encouragement, especially to the young.

James Gore King was the third son of Rufus King and Mary Alsop his wife. He was born in the city of New York, on the 8th of May, 1791, at the residence of his grandfather, John Alsop, No. 38 Smith-street, afterward known as 82 William-street.

When just turned of five years of age he was taken, with the rest of the family, to England, to which country Mr. Rufus King was appointed Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary by Washington, in 1796.

Before he had reached his seventh year he was placed with Mr. Brown, who kept a select boarding-school of high reputation at Kensington Gravel

Pits, near London, and there he remained, making satisfactory progress, until 1801, when, for the benefit of acquiring the French language, James was sent over to Paris to the care of the late Daniel Parker, an old friend of Mr. R. King, and long a resident in that city. Mr. Parker sent him to a school of high repute in Paris, where he soon acquired a thorough knowledge and mastery of the language, while prosecuting other studies.

In 1803, when Chancellor Livingston, then American minister in Paris, was about returning home, he took with him our young student, in order that, in conformity with the well-considered views of his father as to the importance of a youth receiving his education, in part at least, in the country and among the people where and with whom he was to live, he might finish his studies at home.

After a short interval passed with his parents in this city, James was confided to the care of the Rev. Dr. Gardiner, Rector of Trinity Church, Boston, who received him with some few other private pupils into his house, and fitted them for Harvard University. Into the University accordingly, of which his father was a graduate, he entered in 1806, and graduated from it with honor in 1810.

He commenced almost immediately the study of law as his future profession, with the venerable Peter Van Schaick, of Kinderhook, then old and nearly blind, but to whom, as to Milton—

“The celestial light
Shone inward, and the mind thro’ all her powers
Irradiated.”

Mr. Van Schaick was an old-fashioned, black-letter lawyer, loving his profession, and adorning it by an upright life, and by sound and varied scholarship. Under his teaching and his example, our young student acquired that thoroughness which in all things characterized his after life. With the superficial he was never content to rest satisfied. This habit he owed not a little to Mr. Van Schaick, of whom he always spoke with great regard and reverence. After some months spent under the roof of Mr. Van Schaick, James went to the law-school at Litchfield, then in its brightest estate, and under the instruction of Tappan Reeve and Judge Gould completed his elementary education as a lawyer.

Returning home to New York, and thrown by family association into the society of the late Arch. Gracie and his household, in February, 1812, he married Sarah, the second daughter of Mr. Gracie, and from that time was led to turn his attention rather to Commerce than the law as a profession. The war, however, which soon followed, left little opportunity for Commerce, and he was fain to wait for peace before entering into business. In the summer of 1814, when a very large militia force was called out by the general government and stationed in this city, Mr. J. King was selected as his Assistant Adjutant General by Major General Ebenezer Stevens, who commanded in chief the whole militia contingent, in subordination to the general officer of the United States army, to whom was assigned the command of the military district, and especially the defence of the city of New York. Mr. King entered with characteristic method, intelligence, and ardor upon this before untried field of duty, and he acquitted himself most abundantly to the satisfaction of his commander, and with general acceptance to all with whom he was brought into official relation. The troops were disbanded at the commencement of the winter of 1814-15, and with the peace which was concluded at Ghent in December, 1814, closed his military service.

In the year 1815 he established, under the firm of James G. King & Co., a commission house in this city, in connection and partnership with his father-in-law Arch. Gracie, and Mr. Walker, of Petersburg, Va., an old partner of Mr. Gracie, and was measureably successful in business. In the year 1818, however, upon the recommendation of his father-in-law, Mr. Gracie, he broke up his business in this city and went to Liverpool, and there, with his brother-in-law, Archibald Gracie, established the house of King & Gracie.

During a residence of nearly six years in this chief of English seaports, with a large business, and encountering heavy responsibilities, Mr. K. so skillfully steered his bark, that in despite of the wide-spread calamities which both in England and America marked the years 1822, '23, '24, and which overwhelmed his own nearest and dearest connections in this country, he maintained his own high character, fulfilled all the responsibilities of his house, and on leaving England in 1824, in compliance with advantageous arrangements made for his future residence in New York, left behind him an enviable name and reputation for urbanity, intelligence, promptness and integrity. He made many fast and valuable friends while abroad, and retained their good will and confidence unabated to the day of his death.

While in Liverpool he was brought into relations of business and much personal intimacy with the late *John Jacob Astor*, who was on a brief visit to Europe; and such was the impression made upon that sagacious observer and almost unerring judge of character, by the business tact and promptness of Mr. King and his general character, that, upon his return to the United States, Mr. Astor invited him to come to New York, and take the chief direction of the American Fur Company, with a very liberal salary. The offer was a tempting one, and made at a time when, owing to the mercantile disasters already alluded to, the prospects of Mr. King's house in Liverpool were not very promising. But the business to which he was invited was wholly new to him, and moreover it was in his character to prefer an independent position—though it might be less lucrative—to any however advantageous of which the tenure was at the pleasure of others. Mr. King therefore declined, but with such expression of his sense of the liberal kindness of Mr. Astor as was both natural and fitting; and Mr. Astor continued his fast friend always, and had another occasion of proving his friendship about the close of 1823. Consulted by Mr. Prime, then at the head of the house of Prime, Ward, Sands & Co., as to his knowledge of some fitting person upon whom Mr. Prime might safely devolve a portion of the business of his prosperous house, Mr. Astor at once suggested the name of James G. King, and accompanied it with such eulogies as to determine Mr. Prime, who it seems, from some business intercourse between their houses, had himself thought of Mr. King, to invite him to become a partner in his house.

This proposal Mr. King took into serious consideration, but with his habitual directness and prudence, determined upon a personal interview with Mr. Prime and the other partners of the house before accepting it. Mr. King accordingly made a visit to New York in 1823, and having satisfied himself of the expediency of accepting Mr. Prime's proposals, he returned to Liverpool, wound up the affairs of the house there, came back to New York, and on the 1st of May, 1824, became a partner of the house of Prime, Ward, Sands, King & Co., which then consisted of Nathaniel Prime, Samuel Ward, Joseph Sands, J. G. King, and Robert Ray.

The thorough business habits which Mr. King brought with him, and the

confidence with which his character had inspired some of the leading commercial houses both in England and on the continent, could not fail, and did not, in enlarging at once and methodizing the business of the house in which he had become a partner. Capable of great and sustained application, clear and prompt in his language and in his transaction, and tempted never, by any prospect of advantage, however dazzling, from the prescribed line of business in which he was engaged, he very soon created for himself a position and an influence among the merchants of our city and country, which endured to the end. Prosperity rewarded his labors. In 1826 the death of Mr. Sands caused a dissolution of the firm, which was reconstituted under the name of Prime, Ward, King & Co., consisting of all the surviving partners of the firm, with the addition of Mr. Edward Prime, eldest son of the senior partner.

Pursuing the even tenor of his way, as the most active member of this house—for Mr. Prime was already partially withdrawing himself, and actually retired in 1831, and Mr. Ward, who had been a hard worker, now willingly relinquished the laboring oar to his younger associate—Mr. King gave himself heartily to business, and found himself richly rewarded by success, and by the general regard and confidence of his associates and fellow citizens of all classes. He did not, however, permit business so to engross his time or heart as to be inaccessible to the charms of society, the claims of benevolence or the duties of a patriot citizen. Dispensing always a liberal hospitality, and enjoying, and himself greatly contributing by his varied knowledge and conversational talent to, the pleasure of refined society, his ear and his hand were ever open to the cry of misery, and his charities were ready, unostentatious and discriminating.

Although averse to political life, he nevertheless deemed it a duty, obligatory on every man, to take such part and interest in public affairs as becomes every citizen of a free representative republic. Especially on all questions connected with the Commerce and finances of the country did he keep himself well informed, and prepared always to unite with his fellow citizens in any measures which he deemed conducive to the general welfare.

In the year 1834, two years after he had removed his residence to the opposite shore of the Hudson in New Jersey, he was urged to allow himself to be presented as a candidate for Congress from New York, and consenting thereto he returned to the city, and established himself in Bleecker-street, to the end that, if elected, no technical objection might arise as to residence. Although sustained by a very large vote, and especially by a very gratifying exhibition of zeal on the part of the merchants of the city, not easily aroused to political activity, he failed of an election, and in the ensuing spring returned once more and finally to his New Jersey Home, coming, however, daily to his business in town.

About this period it was that he became warmly interested in the success of the great undertaking then all but hopeless, so great was the indifference of the public to its claims, and so general the distrust of its feasibility—the New York and Erie Railroad.

After well considering the subject, and satisfying himself both of the practicability and the advantages of such a road, in 1835 he consented to accept the presidency of the company—declining however to receive any salary. A new subscription was started, with gratifying success. Mr. King in the summer of that year visited and inspected the whole line of the road, new surveys were made, and a considerable portion of the road along the Dela-

ware was put under contract, and in the following year, 1836, the Legislature of the State, moved thereto in no slight degree by the high character of Mr. King, under whose management it was felt that whatever aid might be appropriated by the State would be faithfully applied, granted to the company the credit of the State to the amount of *three millions of dollars*. The pecuniary difficulties which were then disturbing the country rendered it impossible to avail of this credit upon terms at all suitable to the character of the State or of the enterprise, and Mr. King, finding his time too much diverted by the duties of the presidency from the business of his house, resigned the office in 183-. Entering upon it as he did wholly upon public grounds, and from public considerations, and declining all compensation for his services, he was seconded in his disinterested course by the directors of the company, who upon his suggestion adopted a by-law, that no director should have any pecuniary interest in any contract, nor in any property along the line of the road, thus giving to the public the surest guaranty, that no selfish ends were to be subserved by any of its arrangements. It is not perhaps too much to assume that although the ultimate success and completion of the road were brought about by other and able hands, the impulse given to it by Mr. King as president in its first period of doubt and danger, assured its existence and its accomplishment.

In the year 1832 Mr. King had removed his residence to the heights of Weehawken, on the Hudson River, opposite to our city, where he had previously bought some fifty acres of land and built a substantial house. The beauty of the spot, rough and unimproved as it was when he purchased, its fine natural forest, and its great capabilities, gave ample employment to his taste and to his means, yet never tempted him into hasty, excessive, or other than gradual and measured outlay and improvement. And to those who have ever been exposed at all to the fascination of embellishing a rural home and with means in hand, have realized the difficulty of holding back, and of going only step by step and little by little, this remark will afford a sure test of the calm and sober judgment by which Mr. K. was habitually governed. The late Lord Ashburton, when walking round the grounds with Mr. K., and listening to his description of what he had done and how long he had been doing it, and of what yet might be done and the time it would require to accomplish it, said to him—"Half the failures of eminent London merchants have been occasioned by the ambition to have a fine place, and by undue, excessive, and hasty expenditure thereon; but I see, by the manner in which you have gone about your improvements, that you are in no danger from that source." Lord Ashburton was perfectly right. Mr. K. was of too steady a temper and too disciplined habits ever to suffer himself to run into excess in the gratification of taste, or the indulgence of that refined selfishness, if so it must be called, which delights in embellishing Home.

Becoming thus by permanent residence a citizen of New Jersey, he declined none of the duties consequent upon the relation; whether serving as grand juror, or aiding in the encouragement of schools, or contributing to the creation and support of his village church, or actively participating in the deliberations and researches of the New Jersey Historical Society, he approved himself a worthy citizen of the State. As an agriculturist, too, he took pains to introduce the finest cattle, while as a gardener, he was both earnest and successful in naturalizing and cultivating the finest varieties of fruits and flowers.

Loving and enjoying as Mr. K. did country life, he nevertheless was regular and attentive as ever in the important concerns of his business. By the retiring or death of the older partners of the house and the introduction of younger members, sons of those old partners or his own, Mr. K. had become the head of the house, and its chief responsibilities and direction rested upon him, and they found him always ready and steady. As prosperity never unduly elated him, nor tempted him beyond the line of prudence and of safety, so when adverse affairs alarmed others he retained his equanimity; and steering his own course skillfully and confidently in every tempest, he not only afforded an example and encouragement to others tossed by the same storm, but was enabled to save from shipwreck some that but for timely aid must have gone down.

Hence, therefore, when the year 1837 with its sweeping commercial disasters shook others from their propriety, Mr. King looked on, not unmoved, certainly, for the sympathies of his nature were generous, but without being at all disconcerted, and with the calm self-reliance of one who had measured the whole case, and knew the extent, the applicability, and the adequacy of the resources that could be availed of to meet it. His voice, therefore, his countenance, his counsel were cheerful and full of hope when clouds seemed heaviest, and his hand was stretched forth to sustain. It was a time, nevertheless, to try men's nerves, as well as credit.

Failures of largely extended houses, commencing at New Orleans, spread throughout the land. New York had its full proportion. In London, too, several houses, chiefly connected with the Commerce of the United States, were brought to a stand. The Bank of England set its face against a further extension of credit, and this policy re-acted with great intensity in New York.

The seasons, too, had been unfavorable to agriculture, and, for the first time in our history as a nation, even wheat was imported from abroad for our own consumption. Nearly a million and a half bushels of wheat were brought from Europe into New York in the course of the spring of 1837. The banks almost everywhere had imprudently increased their loans, the federal government, with its specie circular, aggravated the evil, and universal bankruptcy seemed impending. The State of New York, for a loan not exceeding half a million of dollars, at 6 per cent interest, publicly advertised, received not a bid.

Mr. King was too sagacious not to perceive alike the magnitude and the extent of the danger; but he also saw and knew that mutual aid and co-operation would mitigate, if they could not control, the impending storm. He sought earnestly and anxiously to avert especially the loss and the disgrace of a suspension of specie payments in a time of universal peace, and when no scourge of pestilence or famine was at hand to paralyze industry or to extenuate voluntary insolvency. But the concurrence of causes pecuniary and political—which, however, it is no part of this memoir to discuss, or further to notice—overbore all individual efforts and opinions. The banks of the city of New York, after a long and honest struggle, came to the conclusion that a suspension of specie payments was unavoidable, and indeed indispensable, in order to avert the necessity of further sacrifice of property by the struggling merchants in the effort to meet their engagements.

Accordingly, after deliberate consultation among the officers and directors of the banks, on Wednesday, 10th of May, the following notice was issued:—

"NOTICE TO THE PUBLIC IN RELATION TO THE BANKS.

"At a meeting last evening of all the banks in this city, except three, it was

Resolved, That, under existing circumstances, it is expedient and necessary to suspend payments in specie.

In the mean time the notes of all the banks will be received at the different banks as usual in payment of debts and in deposits; and as the indebtedness of the community to the banks exceeds three times the amount of their liabilities to the public, it is hoped and expected that the notes of the different banks will pass current as usual, and that the state of the times will soon be such as to render the resumption of specie payments practicable."

The Manhattan and Merchants' Bank and the Bank of America, the three dissenting at the meeting on the previous evening, and hoping, perhaps, still to sustain their specie payments, were borne away the next day, and fell in with the rest.

The merchants and traders of the city met the same day at the Exchange, in pursuance of a call numerously signed by leading men of all pursuits and parties; and to an overflowing meeting Mr. James G. King presented himself, and after reading the call, enforced its objects with great power and effect. He inculcated "the necessity of mutual aid and forbearance," as we find him reported in the journals of the day, "and that all should put their shoulder to the wheel, without looking back now to the causes of our calamities, though a time to examine into and proclaim these causes would surely come. He said it was with deep humiliation as a merchant that he witnessed this hour; and it was only in the belief that the suspension of specie payments by the banks would be temporary, and in the conviction that in order to hasten the period of resumption the co-operation of all was required, to sustain the credit of the bills of the banks, that he had consented to present himself to the meeting." He concluded by moving the following resolutions, which were seconded by Mr. N. Prime, and adopted:—

"*Resolved*," (after reciting the resolution of the banks just given,) "That, relying upon the above statement, we have full confidence in the ultimate ability of the banks of this city to redeem all their bills and notes, and that we will ourselves continue to receive, and we recommend all our fellow-citizens to receive them as heretofore.

That in an emergency like the present, it is alike the dictate of patriotism and self-interest to abstain from all measures tending to aggravate existing evils, and by mutual forbearance and mutual aid to mitigate as far as practicable the existing difficulties, and thus most essentially to assist in the restoration of specie payments."

These resolutions were put separately, and each was unanimously adopted. The sanction thus given by all the leading men of business to an *accomplished fact* produced an instantaneous effect; a sense of relief was felt, as if a heavy pressure were removed. Stocks and other securities rose in price, and business became more active.

It is a coincidence which at the time was gratifying to Mr. King, and in the retrospect is now not less gratifying to his family, that on occasion of suspending specie payments by the banks in 1812-13, during the war with England, Mr. Rufus King was called from his retirement on Long Island to urge the same views as those presented by his son in 1837, and that in each case the speaker carried his hearers and the country with him. In 1812-13, however, New York only followed; in 1837 it was her hard and humiliating

fortune to lead the way in suspension; and her example swept away, as the news of it sped, the banking institutions East, North, South, and West. The Pennsylvania Bank of the United States, which had succeeded the National Bank destroyed by President Jackson, was obliged to yield with the other banks of Pennsylvania, and closed its vaults on the day after the suspension in New York.

Throughout the summer of 1837, Mr. King, with others of like views, was earnest in preparing measures for the speediest possible return to specie payments. Disasters, however, thickened around—the failure in London of three of the largest houses interested in the American trade—followed as this unavoidably was by failures in the United States—and the return of a large amount of sterling bills drawn on those houses, added to the general consternation, and of course to the obstacles of a speedy redemption. Mr. King, however, never lost his self-possession, nor confidence in the opinion, and in the expression of it, that the banks and the general mercantile community *had* ample means and an honest purpose to meet, ultimately, all their engagements. Under such impressions, both with a view to inspire on the other side confidence in such a result, and to judge for himself of the actual condition of money affairs there, he embarked in the month of October for England. He was warmly received and eagerly consulted by bankers and merchants in London; and did not fail, by his calm and assured tone and judgment about the means and responsibilities of his own countrymen, to allay much of the apprehension which panic and ignorance of the extent of resources possessed by our commercial community and banks, had produced.

When he had accomplished thus much, he went further, and undertook to show to the leading capitalists and to the Bank of England, that in their own interest, if from no other view, they should aid the Americans struggling to extricate themselves from embarrassments, and to return to specie payments. He startled the bank parlor in Threadneedle-street by a suggestion, that instead of embarrassing American merchants by discrediting, as they had been doing, paper connected with the American trade, it nearly concerned the solvency of many of their own customers, and consequently their own interests, that liberal aid should rather be extended to that trade. Again and again invited to consult with the bank authorities as to measures fit to be taken in the crisis, he finally brought them over to his views, and gave practical scope to those views, by proposing that the bank should at once send over to New York several million dollars in coin, in order to strengthen the banks in America, and to make their redemption more easy and early. Regularly advised from home of the systematic measures in progress there for bank resumption, and made aware that timidity rather than want of actual means withheld the banks of the city of New York from an immediate return to specie payments, he himself saw clearly, and proved to the Governors of the Bank of England, that at such a juncture a supply of coin from that institution would at once determine the New York banks in their right course, and render it both easy and permanent.

In conformity with these opinions of Mr. King, the Bank of England resolved to confide to his house the consignment of one million pounds sterling in gold, upon the sole responsibility of that house and the guaranty of Baring, Brothers & Co. The object and the terms of that important movement are stated in the letter, of which a copy is subjoined, addressed by the Governor of the Bank of England, W. Curtis, to Mr. King:—

BANK OF ENGLAND, March 20, 1838.

SIR:—I have to acknowledge your favor of yesterday's date, and to express my concurrence in its contents in respect to the consignment of gold coin or bullion and the returns for the same. Messrs. Baring, Brothers & Co. have also addressed me guarantying the transaction and the payment of the bills of exchange which may be remitted.

In reply to your observation as to the latitude it may be expedient to give in the time for making these returns, I beg to say that it is not at all the intention of the bank that any undue haste should be exhibited in taking bills of exchange for remittance. I am quite aware that any such action on the exchange at New York would tend unnecessarily to raise premiums on bills. The object of the bank in the operation is not one of profit—the whole transaction is one out of the ordinary course of its operations. Profit, therefore, is not what the bank seeks; but by a judicious course of proceeding, the bank may be saved from loss; and it is fairly entitled to a moderate rate of interest, if the progress of the transaction will admit of it.

I deem it inexpedient to fix any precise period within which the returns should be made. Having shown your house so much confidence in intrusting the management of this great concern in their hands, it would but ill agree with that confidence if I were to prescribe limits which might, in many ways, act most inconveniently, and deprive the bank of the advantage of your judgment and experience, in both of which I hope to find a satisfactory result to this important undertaking.

Wishing you a safe voyage, I have the honor to be, sir, your very obedient servant,

T. A. CURTIS, Governor.

JAMES GORE KING, Esq.,
Partner of the house of Messrs. Prime, Ward & King,
of New York, now in London.

The first shipment of 80,000 sovereigns was made by the bank the next day, per packet ship *Gladiator*, and Mr. King himself soon followed, with a much larger sum. The solicitude of Mr. King to hasten resumption by the banks of New York and throughout the United States, which has been already dwelt upon, lay at the bottom of this great operation, and he was naturally and reasonably elated at his success. He thus announced the transaction to his friend, S. B. Ruggles, Esq., then at Albany as one of the members of Assembly from this city:—

LONDON, March 15, 1838.

"I hasten to apprise you that I have concluded an arrangement on the part of Baring, Brothers & Co., and Prime, Ward & King, with the Bank of England, for the shipment of ONE MILLION OF SOVEREIGNS, (in gold of course,) by the four or five ships for New York from London and Liverpool, and I hope and trust that upon their arrival, our banks and those of the Atlantic cities will resume and maintain specie payments, towards which result my thoughts and efforts have been unceasingly devoted. The service which I have thus had the opportunity to render my own city and State by aiding it, in taking the initiative in this great and wholesome measure, affords me a satisfaction in which I know that you and my other friends will fully participate. The arrangement was only concluded definitely this morning, but I communicate it with all dispatch."

The anticipation of Mr. King that with the aid thus opportunely and fortunately brought to them, the banks of New York would resume and maintain specie payment was abundantly realized. Already, in despite of a convention of delegates from the banks of New England, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Maryland, who formally declared the resumption could not yet safely be attempted, in despite of the absolute refusal of the banks of Pennsylvania to come into the measure, the banks of New York had re-

solved that on or before the 10th of May *they would resume*, and the whole business community of the city resolved to stand by the banks in this honest determination. The work was accomplished by the vote that it should be done. The legislature authorized the emission of small notes. They also created some four millions of stocks for canal purposes, for which the banks, by special act, were permitted to subscribe, so as to obtain an available resource for the purchase of coin in England, if needed; and almost without an effort, and absolutely without any shock, the reign of irredeemable paper was terminated: first, by the issue of small notes and their redemption in coin whenever asked, and then by a full resumption which was complete weeks before the specified day of May.

As the coin from the Bank of England arrived, it was disposed of on easy terms to the banks here and in Boston—a large sum offered to the Bank of the United States of Pennsylvania at first declined, was afterwards availed of—and thus the city of New York, which had seen itself compelled to lead the way in suspension, had the great honor and satisfaction to lead the way itself in resumption, and to smooth the way for others.

The signal confidence reposed by the Bank of England in the house of Prime, Ward & King in this important transaction, was fully justified by the event, as were the sagacious provisions of Mr. King, as to the good results to be effected by such a use of the Bank's treasure.

It is satisfactory to be able to add that a concern of so large import—entered into not without high motives on the part of the Bank of England and conducted with equal skill and fidelity by the New York house—was wound up without loss and with great promptness.

In the autumn of the year 1839 Samuel Ward died, but the partnership, according to its tenor, was continued; the eldest son of Mr. Ward and the son-in-law of Mr. King, Mr. Deming Duer, having been admitted as partners in the previous month of May.

The business of the house went on in its steady, regular, and as to profits, progressive course. In 1844, A. Gracie King, son of Jas. G. King, became a partner, and the house then consisted of J. G. King, Edward Prime, Sam. Ward, Deming Duer, and A. Gracie King. A diversity of views as to the proper scope and business of the house led, in 1847, to its dissolution. J. G. King, with his son-in-law and son, under the firm of James G. King & Sons, continued the old business in the same line exactly.

Mr. King, shortly after the formation of the new firm, made a second visit to Europe, with a view both to business and pleasure, taking part of his family with him. While abroad, though only gone for some five or six months, one of those financial disturbances, which, if not regularly periodical in commercial affairs, are of frequent occurrence, came to try the skill, the prudence, and the nerve of the younger partners left in charge of the house in New York; it found them well prepared, and passed them by undisturbed and uninjured. In London, a like money pressure and derangement existed, produced on both sides by the same cause, deficient harvests in Europe, and excessive speculations in breadstuffs. Mr. King had thus again the opportunity, by his steadiness of nerve and character, and his full comprehension of all the difficulty as regards his own countrymen, to encourage and relieve the public mind in England. He had too, at the same time, the opportunity to manifest, in a very special manner, the interest he continued to feel in the welfare of his late partners.

Mr. King came back at the close of 1847, bringing with him an increased

measure of confidence and regard from some of the leading capitalists of Europe, and experiencing most satisfactorily in the constantly enlarging business of the house, the evidence of such confidence. He did not, however, feel himself called upon to devote his time and labor, as in former years, in so great a degree to business. His young associates had proved their prudence, capacity, and industry, under difficult circumstances, and he was content to leave to them the burden of work, always exercising, however, a thorough and intelligent supervision over the business.

Mention has been made of the friendly and confidential relations which subsisted between Mr. King and the late J. J. Astor. It was a cherished wish of Mr. Astor, many years ago urged upon Mr. King, that he would consent to be one of the executors of his estate. Mr. King was very averse to undertaking any such trust, of which the responsibilities would, as in this case, extend beyond the probable period of his own life; but after repeated requests he consented, and by the last will of Mr. Astor, Mr. King was named an executor and also a trustee of the public library, for the establishment of which the will made so liberal provision. It so happened that owing to his change of residence and consequently ceasing to be a citizen of New York, Mr. King could not, according to the laws of the State, enter upon the duty of an executor without giving bond in twice the amount of the personal property of the deceased, for the faithful performance of that duty. Mr. W. B. Astor, who well knew, and himself shared in, his father's strong desire that Mr. King should serve in that capacity, at once offered to give the required bonds himself, but Mr. King absolutely declined, not willing that any one should be bound in the penalty of millions for him. He, however, at the request of the executors, habitually met with them as a friend and adviser, but without any official character. As trustee of the library, he was always a punctual and interested attendant at every meeting of the board, and derived much satisfaction from being instrumental in shaping and directing a benefaction so fraught with good to the present and all future time.

His connection too with the Chamber of Commerce was one in which he took much pleasure. It began with his earliest mercantile career, having been elected a member of that corporation in April, 1817. When, after several years of absence in Europe, he returned to his native city, he renewed his connection with the Chamber. In 1841 he was chosen first vice president, and annually rechosen for four years, when, in 1845, he became president, and served in that station four years. Over and above the ordinary business of this body, its president, by the will of Capt. Randal, the generous founder of the *Sailors' Snug Harbor*, was to be *ex officio* a trustee of that noble foundation. Mr. King entered very thoroughly upon this duty, and was instant on all proper occasions and in all proper ways, both to render it as beneficent as possible to those for whom it was instituted, and to confine it to them. Hence he always sought, so far as depended upon his vote and influence, to place all the subordinate trusts and offices in the hands of sea-faring men, to abolish all expenditure not needed for the accommodation and benefit of the sailors, and all sinecures.

On retiring from the chair of the Chamber in 1848, in the course of an address of thanks to the assembled members for the partiality shown by his frequent re-election, he dwelt with particular emphasis upon this important *ex officio* connection of the president of the Chamber with the foundation of the *Sailors' Snug Harbor*, and expressed fervently the hope, both in the interest of the sailor who had so good a right to look up to the merchant as

his natural guardian, and in behalf of the dignity and efficiency of the Chamber, that this part of the president's duty would always be faithfully and diligently executed.

The state of public affairs and political questions in 1848, was such as to call forth the anxieties of thoughtful men, and Mr. King, after much solicitation on the part of neighbors and political friends in New Jersey, and the urgent entreaties of many of his associates—the chief commercial men of this city—reluctantly consented to accept a nomination for Congress, from the Vth. Congressional district, where he resided, and where the Whig party, to which he belonged, had the ascendancy. Having once accepted, he went heartily into the canvass, and to the end that his person, and his opinions, as well as his manner of stating these might be widely known to those whose votes he asked, he visited all the chief places of the district, addressing large meetings, making no disguise of any opinion, and assuming none for the occasion; and dealing thus squarely with the constituency, he received from them one of the largest majorities ever cast in the district.

He took his seat in the House of Representatives, at Washington, as a member of the 31st Congress, on Monday, December 4th, 1849, and was present without flinching, at every ballot—amounting to sixty-three in all, and protracted through nearly three weeks, from Monday the 3d to Saturday the 22d of December both inclusive—for Speaker, when Howell Cobb, of Georgia, was finally chosen, by a plurality and not by a majority vote. This organization of the House threw Mr. King into the minority, and gave to the anti-administration party, General Taylor being President, the control of all the committees. Mr. King was put by the Speaker upon the standing committee on roads and canals, where little scope presented itself for his labors. He applied himself with exemplary punctuality and diligence to the business of the house, never being absent from his seat, however long and wearying the sittings, unless actually deterred by illness. On all questions touching the revenue and its collection, the finances, and Commerce, he spoke with marked effect, never wearying the house with prosy essays, nor disturbing its harmony by partisan appeals. As a consequence he was eagerly listened to.

On the bill for a collection of the revenue, his efficiency and his practical ability were specially manifested. The House had talked over, and cavilled at, and delayed a joint resolution from the Senate, authorizing the requisite expenditure for defraying the cost of collecting duties at the Custom-House. The matter was urgent, for there was no appropriation and no money therefore available for such uses. In consequence the business of the Custom-House was seriously embarrassed; every other desk almost was vacant, for lack of means to pay for services, and ships arriving with full cargoes were unable to discharge, because there were not officers to attend to it. Notwithstanding these embarrassments to Commerce and danger to the revenue, the House of Representatives hesitated and objected, insisting that the Secretary of the Treasury should have asked a specific appropriation for each head of expenditure, and seemed disposed to vote against the gross sum asked, although it was, for the half year requiring immediate provision, less than half of the sum voted to Mr. Walker when Secretary of the Treasury, for a year's expense. Mr. King, feeling the great wrong and the great suffering arising from delay, applied himself strenuously to the subject, digested the various amounts needed under specific heads, so as to meet objections on that score, and then moved an amendment to the resolution

from the Senate, in which, after appropriating the respective sums needed for the half year, he employed this phraseology—"and in that proportion for any shorter or longer time, *until Congress shall act upon the subject.*" The passage here marked in italics fixes permanently and without any fresh appropriation, the expenditure for the collection of revenues until Congress shall otherwise order—a very important point since it obviates the recurrence of any like embarrassment to that the resolution was designed to cure. Although opposed by the chairman of the committee of ways and means, Mr. King maintained with so much precision and force the merits of the resolution, that it was finally adopted by a considerable majority, and became, and it is now, the law of the land.

In the course of the next session the Speaker, influenced probably by the impression made upon the House by Mr. King's practical business information and clear and ready elocution, without any suggestion or advance from Mr. King or his friends, placed him on the committee on Commerce, wherein he was able to make himself very useful.

When, at the request of the Secretary of War, Mr. Crawford, a committee was appointed by the House of Representatives to investigate his connection with what was commonly known as the Galphin Claim, and the nature of that claim, the Speaker named Mr. King as a member of it. A calculating politician would probably have declined such a questionable distinction; but Mr. King, strong in the consciousness of right purpose, and always ready to follow out his convictions and stand by them, did not seek to escape the responsibility of this position. He examined the whole case cautiously and acutely, and finding evidence that seemed to him incontestible of the justice of the claim, he recommended its payment; and discovering no rightful nor equitable difference between a debt unlawfully withheld from its creditor by a government and a debt withheld in like circumstances by an individual, he was unable to perceive why the rule which would compel the individual to pay both principal and interest should not equally apply to the government, and accordingly he concurred in, and ably defended on the floor of the House, the report of the committee which recommended the payment of principal and interest on the Galphin Claim. He knew the outcry that awaited such a course; but his own self-respect, and the utterance of and adherence to his honest opinions, pointed it out to him as right, and he took it.

With General Taylor, during his too brief career as President, Mr. King lived on a footing of great confidence and intimacy, and none mourned more truly than he the decease of that honest and good chief magistrate. He foresaw then, what soon became manifest to all, that with the disappearance from the scene of a man of such positive character, such pre-eminent merits, and such deserved popularity as *General Taylor*, a great power to restrain men of extreme opinions from rushing into extravagant measures, was lost. Already the menacing questions connected with the admission of Texas, New Mexico, and California into the Union, were disturbing the harmony of the country; but while General Taylor lived and was invested with the power of chief magistrate, it was felt alike by all, that he would permit no violation of law or constitution, but possessing himself in calmness, and standing aloof from the hot strife of sections, that he would guard the rights of all, and subject all rights to the test of the supreme law. Mr. King concurred entirely with General Taylor and his cabinet in their recommendations as to the proper mode of disposing of the knotty questions

of Texas, New Mexico, and California, and was therefore not prepared for, and did not approve the sudden change of policy adopted by the successor of General Taylor, and finally passed through Congress in the shape of the Compromise.

Against the Fugitive Slave Law in particular, Mr. King, faithful to his name and blood, voted ever, as against every proposition that looked to the spread of slavery. Yet amid the hottest agitation on these subjects in Congress, Mr. King neither lost his calmness nor faltered in his opposition. He felt indeed no solicitude about the Union, the safety of which he well knew depends not upon hot-heads in Congress or out of it, and his course was influenced as little by the clamors of those so noisy to save, as by those other so fierce to dissolve the blessed bond that makes us a nation.

Among the incidental claims upon Congress, as administrators of the property of the nation, no one more interested Mr. King than that preferred by Miss Dix for a grant of public land towards defraying the expenses of establishing, where needed, asylums for the protection and the cure of the insane. He felt the force of this appeal all the more strongly from the beautiful example of self-sacrifice and generous devotion to the cause of the most desolate of God's creatures, which that lady's life, and exertions, and sufferings, and dangers exhibited—and he labored zealously, though without success, to obtain the grant she asked. He had the happiness, however, of presenting through her and upon her suggestion, a library of select books to the Insane Asylum of New Jersey at Trenton, and subsequently sent, for the embellishment of the grounds of that institution and for the supply of its conservatories, a large collection of plants.

The first session of the 31st Congress lasted almost *ten months*, and during that whole time Mr. King never left Washington. But the life was unsuited to his habits and tastes: and although purposing to serve out his term, he made up his mind not to be a candidate for re-election. After attending with like fidelity through the second session, in the course of which he had occasion again and again to press upon the House the necessity and advantage of establishing a branch mint in New York, Mr. King returned home in March, 1851, with the settled purpose to avoid any further engagement in public life. Yet his career in Congress had been altogether successful. As a speaker, he was always attentively heard, for it was known that he only spoke when he had something to say, and left off when he had said it; while his accurate information and large experience in all matters connected with Commerce and finance, gave great weight to his opinions.

When, upon the accession of Mr. Fillmore to the Presidency, a new cabinet was formed, Mr. King was spoken of as the Secretary of the Treasury, and his name was urged upon Mr. Fillmore. Mr. King, as soon as he heard of it, went himself to Mr. Fillmore, and at once begged him not to trouble himself a moment with considering his (Mr. King's) name, in reference to that or any office, for he could not accept one under any circumstances.

Putting off his official robes with far more alacrity than he had put them on, Mr. King returned with increased delight to his trees, his garden, and his beautiful rural home.

Withdrawing himself more and more from the cares and the requirements of business, he gave himself serenely and cheerfully to that preparation for another life, the need of which advancing years bring to every sensitive and thoughtful mind, and which to his mind was brought all the more

impressively by reason of occasional disturbances of the regular action of the heart and lungs. These symptoms he accepted without murmur, as a kindly and merciful warning. "There is something wrong here," he would say, laying his hand upon his broad chest, "I will fight it while I can, but it is to prevail," and beautifully did he carry out this manly sentiment.

Thus far we have looked at Mr. King in his relations with the world, and with society, as a man of business and a public man. Turn we now to the family circle and his inner life. There he was the radiant center of as much love, happiness, and close and united affection, as the world has witnessed. His manner, his voice, his eye, his smile, revealed the deep springs within his heart, of love and joy, and inventive, considerate, and unselfish kindness. With an exterior somewhat set and grave, even at times to reserve; with a steadiness of look that seemed to scrutinize the inmost nature, and that sometimes left the impression of coldness, he united the warmest and tenderest feelings, the quickest and truest sensibilities, and the most unselfish and unchangeable attachments.

Of a well set and vigorous frame, untouched by excesses of any sort, with health uninterrupted till towards the close of his life—a sound mind in a sound body—he took his part in the world cheerfully, hopefully, and with head and heart elate. He was a thorough MAN. Diligent and punctual in business, he yet did not permit it to shut out reasonable recreation and the society of his household. He loved his horse, his dog, his gun, and was a proficient in the use of all of them; and these tastes lasted with him through life.

The country had great charms for him, and much of his attention, of late years, was given, as has already been intimated, to the cultivation of fruits and flowers, and to that most rational, seductive, and withal, even in a mercantile sense, remunerating employment, the planting of trees. The groves of Highwood, (his residence on the Weehawken Heights opposite to the city,) will recall for generations the tasteful and skillful hand which planted, arranged, and grouped them. These cannot follow him, but they will bear witness to him long after all who now enjoy their grateful shade shall have followed him to that resting-place where the funereal cypress weeps alone.

Of simple and child-like faith, of unaffected and unpretending piety, with the consciousness of a life well spent, and of every duty fulfilled, so far as may be predicated of any mere mortal, with no rancor in his heart against any human being, surrounded by all temporal blessings, in the midst of a devoted family, all centering their affections on him, and each emulating his good example, with everything to gild the close of life, he seemed, as the shadows were lengthening, to have withdrawn himself measurably from the busy haunts of men, chiefly that in his lovely and beloved home he might busy himself in devising how to do good to others, and thus add still brighter and more beautiful tints to the calm yet glowing sunset which his prophetic heart seemed to feel was near at hand.

It would be to lift too much the sacred vail of Home to attempt to specify how and how frequently, and how thoughtfully, and how wisely, and how liberally, he exercised his benevolence, but it is not presumptuous to say, that Heaven seemed to smile upon his wishes, and to hallow them. One incident in illustration of this remark, may be mentioned without violating the sanctities of the domestic hearth. A misunderstanding had for some

years existed and comparative estrangement, between him and one who had been nearly connected with him by family ties. This state of things grieved him, for having no resentments or unkindness in his own heart, he was uneasy even under the appearance of cherishing any. A casual and most improbable meeting in a city omnibus, only four days before his death, with the person thus estranged, the inhabitant of another State, afforded him the opportunity of reconciliation. After exchanging friendly salutations in the omnibus, when the person alighted, he too got out, and when alone together, said, extending his hand, "If without asking or giving any explanation you are willing that we should be friends, let it be so;" adding, with that solemn prescience which sometimes goes before the event, "I want, before I die, to be at peace with all." The extended hand was taken—peace was his; and the last words heard from his lips, the last smile on his glowing face, seen by him who in sorrow and in sadness writes these lines, was on the very next day, when he burst in upon him to tell, with the earnestness of complete happiness, the particulars of the interview just related. In less than *sixty hours*! that warm, gentle, generous, manly heart had ceased to beat, that tongue was still in death.

His death was very sudden, and in this particular not unanticipated by him. Previous severe spasmodic paroxysms of the heart and lungs, without warning, and, so far as could be understood, without any predisposing cause, had made him aware of the peculiar uncertainty of his life. He had looked at the case with the calm and sound judgment which was his characteristic, and having come to the conclusion that at any moment one of these paroxysms a little more prolonged than usual would terminate his existence, he prepared himself for such an issue; he set his house in order, and, though manifesting no anxiety, omitting no duty; failing not in the cheerfulness of his social intercourse, and to the common eye evincing by no sign that he felt himself to be at every instant on the brink of the grave, it is believed that he had not for a long, long while ever laid his head on the pillow at night without the thought that he might never see another morning, nor without tranquilly saying, as with his last breath almost he repeated—"Thy will be done."

And this prevision as to the manner of his death was realized. On Monday the 3d of October he had been well as usual, and retired at his accustomed hour to bed. He was soon and suddenly seized by one of those paroxysms. The remedies always at hand, before applied with success, were now resorted to in vain; and before the physician could reach the house, or the family even be assembled, with perfect consciousness and perfect resignation, without a struggle and almost without a sigh, he breathed out his life, in less than half an hour from the first attack of the paroxysm.

Such was the peaceful close of a beautiful life—a life which may be summed up in a few brief lines.

Happily born, carefully educated, with a high order of mind; early and happily married, blessed with dutiful and affectionate children; crowned with prosperity, surrounded with all men's respect, and with all means, appliances, and temptations to selfish indulgences—James G. King was simple in his tastes and habits, unostentatious, self-denying, considerate of others, actively benevolent, exact yet liberal in business, cheerful and instructive as a companion, sought after and prized in society, but loving home with a fondness which years rather added to than weakened, and especially loving children and loved by them—he has passed away; the scenes that knew

him shall know him no more forever, but his memory will endure, and his example shall not perish from among men.

"Quis desiderio sit pudor aut modus
 Tam cari capitis. * * *
 * * * Pudor et Justitiæ soror
 Incorrupta Fides nudaque Veritas,
 Quando ullum invenient parem?
 Multis ille bonis flebilis occidit
 Nulli flebilior quam mihi."

Art. IV.—THE COTTON TRADE.

In presenting to your readers the statistics of the cotton trade for the past year, I am compelled by unavoidable circumstances to omit any remarks or suggestions they might present to me. The figures, however, will not be dry or uninteresting, so numerous and varied are the interests connected with this branch of our agriculture and Commerce.

CONSUMPTION.

In ENGLAND the demand for 1853 has been less than for the preceding year, but only a little less. In the first half of the year the amount worked up by the mills was really larger than in 1852; but the Turkish troubles, and the high price of corn, has reduced the consumption very considerably. The Liverpool deliveries to the trade, which constitute more than 95 per cent of the whole purchases of the manufacturers, have been for the two years as follows:—

	Liverpool Delivery.		Weekly Consumption.	
	1853.	1852.	1853.	1852.
	Bales.	Bales.	Bales.	Bales.
May 6	688,000	680,000	38,000	35,000
June 3	833,270	870,140	37,900	39,500
July 1	989,550	1,000,610	38,100	38,400
August 5	1,202,650	1,194,400	38,800	38,500
September 2	1,306,420	1,340,000	37,300	38,400
October 7	1,429,740	1,520,040	35,700	38,000
November 4	1,545,250	1,701,470	35,100	38,700
" 11	1,578,150	1,718,700	35,100	38,200
" 18	1,609,500	1,781,100	35,000	37,600

For the whole year the consumption of Great Britain for 1852 was 1,861,200 bales, against 1,663,400 for 1851, and 1,514,500 for 1852, and 1,474,420 for the average of the five preceding years. The falling off for 1854 is not so great as would appear by the reported deliveries, since the stocks in the hands of the manufacturers were estimated to be 50,000 bales more than usual on the first of January last, and at the present time they are supposed to be uncommonly low.

The demand for the coming year must decline. The high price of food must seriously interfere with the domestic consumption of Great Britain. When the cost of the English quarter of wheat is now (according to the average of the 12th of November) 73s. 7d. against 40s. for 1852, the portion of their wages which the laborer and artisan can spare for clothing is much diminished. The scarcity of money, as indicated by an advance in the rate of interest from 2 to 5 per cent, must also discourage the wants of the home

trade. The favorable circumstances, such as the high price of iron, the general advance in wages, the abundance of work for the laborer, the diminution in the number of paupers, will be alike operative for both years. The export trade will be seriously embarrassed by the war between Turkey and Russia. The calicoes sent to Turkey and the Levant, including the plain, printed, and dyed, approach 100,000,000 yards per annum, which is 10 or 12 per cent of the whole export. The cotton yarn is 7 or 8 per cent. The calicoes bought by Russia are few, but the yarn is nearly as much as that sent to Turkey. The demand from both these countries must be very much decreased by the war. From Austria and the other German States a decline must be expected from the same cause. The revolution in China will seriously interrupt the exports to that country. The cotton cloths sold by Great Britain alone to this populous empire are larger than what is taken by Russia and Turkey together. The possession of Nankin, and the control of the great canal by the rebels, the occupation of Amoy and Shanghai, two of the five open ports, by lawless usurpers and robbers in whom the merchants place no confidence, the famine at Peking, and the alarm and distrust at Canton, will largely curtail the English exports to the Celestial Empire. From Australia and India, the United States and Canada, no falling off may be anticipated; but if we notice the very large business done with these important countries for the year 1853, no increase can be expected for 1854. The failure of the harvests in Lombardy, France, and Germany, and the high price of food in all parts of the continent of Europe, will lessen the demand for English cottons. Everywhere, both at home and abroad, the prospects of the English manufacturers are discouraging.

Under these circumstances, it may be expected that the increase in the consumption of 1852 and 1853 over previous years will be entirely lost, and that the wants of Great Britain for 1854 will not much exceed the average of 1849, 1850, and 1851, which was 1,589,400 bales. It may reach 1,700,000, but its probable limit is 1,600,000 bales.

In FRANCE the consumption for 1853 is nearly as large as for 1852, and both are decidedly above those of previous years. The deliveries at Havre up to the 16th of November were 349,045 bales, against 367,587 for 1852, and 275,764 for 1851. Our exports to France for 1852 and 1853 have been 421,375 and 426,728 bales; but the stocks on the 16th of November were 36,716 bales in excess of last year, and 37,200 bales over 1851. This would indicate a probable consumption of American cotton for the present year of 390,000 bales; but on account of the unfavorable circumstances at the close of the year, this amount will scarcely be attained. The very great deficiency of the French harvest will lessen the demand for 1854: but as past experience shows that the consumption in the French factories is much more regular than in England, the wants for the coming year of American cotton will not probably fall below 350,000 bales.

The demand for United States cotton on the continent of Europe has not declined for the year 1853. Our exports to those countries are larger than ever before, and the same is true of the English exports. Ours have been 364,812 bales, against 353,522 for 1852, and 269,000 for 1851. The exports from Liverpool, up to November 18th, were 237,540 bales, those of 1852 having been 219,430. The sum of these two for the whole year 1852 was 636,322 bales, and for 1853 they will be larger. The consumption in the German States, and even in Russia, will suffer but little decline as the demand has for many years been advancing with great steadiness

and regularity. For 1854, these countries will probably require not less than 600,000 bales.

For the last year the consumption of the United States has advanced from 603,029 bales to 671,009. The general prosperity of the New England manufacturers and of the country at large, warrants the anticipation of an increase in this demand. The stringency in the money market and the decline in the probable demand for exportation to China, will be more than made up by the increased population of our country, the prosperity of the farmers on account of the high price of breadstuffs, and the abundant crops which have generally rewarded the labors of the husbandman. For the coming year the wants of our manufacturers will probably reach 700,000 bales.

The following table comprises the consumption of 1851 and 1852, the probable result for 1853, and the estimate for 1854:—

	Result for		Estimate for	
	1851. Bales.	1852. Bales.	1853. Bales.	1854. Bales.
Wants of Great Britain.....	1,663,000	1,861,000	1,700,000	1,600,000
“ of France	310,000	410,000	375,000	350,000
“ of United States	404,000	603,000	671,000	700,000
“ of other countries.....	538,000	636,000	650,000	600,000
Total	2,915,000	3,510,000	3,396,000	3,250,000

SUPPLY.

In the United States, a falling off in the receipts will be everywhere experienced; but the deficiency will not be large. The promise in the early part of the year was good, in every part of the country. Up to July the season had been dry; but the drought, though disastrous to the corn, did but little damage to the cotton. On the uplands, the weed was stunted, but on the good lands, especially on the river bottoms and in swampy localities, the fields could not look better. The abundant rains that set in during July and August stimulated the plant on the uplands and appeared to help it; but the new fruit thus produced was generally cut off by the frost on the 25th of October. On the low grounds where the weed was thriving, on the appearance of the rains the squares dropped very extensively, and the late fruit in some places was ruined by the frost. In very many places, however, the plant was not killed, and the fine weather that followed the frost brought out the crop most wonderfully. It was feared that the excessive wetness of the season would encourage the production of the caterpillar and the boll-worm; and on many plantations, indeed, they made sad havoc; but they did not appear so extensively as was feared, and their ravages were not general.

From South Carolina and Georgia a considerable decline might be expected. The first crop of bolls was small, on account of the drought; the second was lessened by the rains; and the third was generally cut off by the frost. But many places have escaped one or the other of these calamities; and the deficiency of the receipts at Charleston and Savannah will be made up in part by increased shipments from Columbus and the Tennessee River. Instead of 813,000 bales for past year, 750,000 may be expected for 1854. From Florida the falling off will be small. The crops on the Flint and Chatahoochee rivers are much better than they were last year, and were it not for the Muscogee Railroad, there would be an increase rather than a decline. The worm and caterpillar have done some damage. But the plant-

ing has been larger; they have had no disastrous storm; and the October frost did not everywhere stop the growth of the plant. The estimate for 1854 may be put at 160,000 bales. From Alabama the reports are various and contradictory. Up to July the promise was never better. The wet weather brought the boll-worm on many plantations, and its ravages at some places were very great. The forms fell off very rapidly: many blossoms were killed. The fine prospects of the summer were by this time injured. The frost then came and destroyed all hope of the late crop of bolls; but in many districts the growth of the cotton was not interrupted by this frost, and during the whole month of November the fine weather for opening and gathering the late crop favored the planters very much.

For Mobile the receipts may be anticipated to be about the same as for the last two years. Similar remarks apply for the most part to New Orleans. The worm was more disastrous in Mississippi and Louisiana, than it was in Alabama; and the malignancy of the yellow fever interrupted at many places proper attention to the crop. A slight decline may be anticipated, therefore, for New Orleans. From Texas, on account of the increased number of planters and the favorable seasons, a small increase over last year may be looked for. From the whole country the receipts may be put at 3,000,000 bales, as in the table below. The great falling off in the receipts for the first part of the season, would appear at first sight to warrant the prediction that the whole crop would be very small. But last year the rivers were very favorable to early shipments from the plantations to the seaboard; and the extraordinary continuance of the yellow fever at the Gulf ports, and its unusual malignity, have, for the present season, discouraged the planters and steamboat owners from forwarding to an early market, the cotton that was otherwise ready for shipment.

	Crop of		Estimate for	
	1851. Bales.	1852. Bales.	1853. Bales.	1854. Bales.
Texas	46,000	64,000	86,000	90,000
New Orleans	988,000	1,373,000	1,581,000	1,400,000
Mobile	452,000	549,000	545,000	540,000
Florida	181,000	189,000	179,000	160,000
Georgia	322,000	326,000	350,000	325,000
South Carolina	387,000	477,000	463,000	425,000
Other places	84,000	87,000	59,000	60,000
Total	2,355,000	3,015,000	3,263,000	3,000,000

The supply from the East Indies will be large. The troubles in China, whither a large portion of their exports is directed, have diverted an unusual amount of cotton from Canton, to Liverpool and London. The imports into Liverpool alone from Surat, Madras, and Bengal, were, on the 18th of November, 277,544 bales, against 124,306 for the year 1852. The whole English receipts were 221,500 bales for 1852, and 328,800 for 1851. Of these amounts the Liverpool receipts were 156,673 and 232,100. If the same proportion yet prevails between the Liverpool and the London imports, the receipts for Great Britain of East India cotton for 1853, will exceed 400,000 bales. For the year 1854, the revolution in China will produce a more decided effect on this diversion of the trade, than it has hitherto done. The English prices which always influence very largely the amount of Indian imports, do not promise so favorably as last year. Balancing these two causes, the estimate for 1854 may be put at 400,000 bales.

From Egypt, Brazil, and the West Indies, the supply has been on the in-

crease for the last four or five years. For the two years, 1847 and 1848, it averaged 136,450 bales. For 1849 and 1850 it was 251,350. For 1851 and 1852 it was 263,850. For 1853 the receipts at Liverpool up to the 18th of November were 219,451 bales against 244,939 for the preceding year. As the whole English receipts for 1852 were 346,700 bales, the smallness of the decline at Liverpool authorizes the expectation that at the end of 1853 they will reach 300,000 bales.

Will this be lessened for the incoming year? No serious falling off can be expected in the South American and West India exports. These constituted for 1851 and 1852 more than half of the receipts, and for 1853 they were two-thirds. In the Egyptian, a decline may be expected on account of the Turkish troubles. But as the planting of the crop took place before these difficulties became serious, the deficiency of the present year will be but slight. Not less than 250,000 bales may confidently be anticipated for 1854.

The supply then from all these sources will probably reach 3,650,000 bales, against nearly four millions for 1853, as appears from the following table:—

	Result for		Estimate for	
	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
	Bales.	Bales.	Bales.	Bales.
United States	2,355,000	3,015,000	3,263,000	3,000,000
East Indies	329,000	221,000	400,000	400,000
Other places	181,000	347,000	300,000	250,000
Total	2,865,000	3,583,000	3,963,000	3,650,000

PRICES.

As this estimate is 400,000 bales above the probable demand at present prices, according to the estimate given above, it would seem impossible to sustain the rates at which cotton is now selling. The stocks are already large, on account of the immense production of last year. On the first of September the amount of old cotton in our ports was 135,648 bales against 91,176 for the year 1852. On the first Friday of October it was in Liverpool, 770,770 bales against 506,670 in 1852. At Havre it had increased by October 14th, to 53,586 bales over the preceding year. The accumulation at these places having advanced more than 350,000 bales during 1853, furnishes a proof that the large crop of the past year has not been consumed. The great deficiency in our receipts at the seaboard, for the early part of the present season, and of our exports to foreign countries, does not permit the enhanced amount of stocks to be now so apparent as it otherwise would be.

Since then the stocks increased largely in 1853, and promise to continue to advance still more for the present year, it would seem impossible that the market price for cotton should continue above the average rates. For the last fourteen years, from 1840 to 1853, the average price has been 8 cents and 7 mills. The exports to foreign ports for the first ten of these years, amounted in all to 7,128 millions of pounds; for the last four they have been 3,570 millions. The value of the first ten was 552 millions of dollars; of the last four, 381 millions. For the whole period, 10,698 millions of pounds were exported for 933 millions of dollars, giving the average price just mentioned. The present price at Charleston, (December 9th, 1853,) for middling is 9½, and for good middling 10 cents. These rates being decidedly above the average, cannot well be maintained, in the face of the

large supply and the diminished demand, while food remains dear and money scarce, while actual war is raging between Russia and Turkey, and imminent danger of general hostilities impends over the principal states of Europe. The large demand in the United States, both for the raw material and for English cotton goods, the immense trade opened in Australia, and the general prosperity in the English colonies and in Mexico and South America, will prevent a serious decline. But that prices must fall below the average of past years appears to be plainly foreshadowed by the history of the past and the circumstances under which the new year opens.

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INSURANCE—TIME POLICIES.

In the Supreme Judicial Court of Massachusetts, November Term, 1853, *F. W. Capen vs. Washington Insurance Company.*

This case came before the Supreme Court on an agreed statement of facts in March, 1851, and upon the opinion as delivered by the Chief Justice, the statement was discharged, and the case sent down for trial, for reasons stated in that opinion, a note of which we republish. The case came up again last term on the report of the Chief Justice, and upon that report the opinion of the Court was stated by him at the present term. The Chief Justice said, that although the Court gave no opinion upon the main question when the case was first before them, yet the law as to implied warranty in time policies was then somewhat fully considered, and with the advantage of that discussion, he had drawn up with much care his proposed instructions to the jury. Those instructions had been considered by the Court, and received their assent, and as he had prepared no written opinion, he would read those instructions, (with some general remarks and illustrations,) as presenting the principles on which this case would be determined by the Court.

The opinion in March, 1851, upon which the case was sent to the jury, was as follows:—

This was an action upon a policy on the ship *Riga* for one year, and came before the Court upon an agreed statement of facts, in substance as follows: At the time the policy was subscribed, the *Riga* was at sea. She returned to Boston, and was again sent out with an assorted cargo to Norfolk, where she was surveyed and pronounced unfit to resume her voyage without essential and costly repairs. The surveyors thought, however, that she might take in a light cargo and go in ballast to some Northern port, where she could be repaired at less expense. She took in such a cargo, sailed, and was burned at sea. The plaintiff admitted, that although seaworthy for the voyage upon which she was engaged at the inception of the policy, yet such was the condition of her timbers at that time, that it was certain she would require repairs before the expiration of the year in some essential parts of her frame work, to fit her for the cargoes usually carried by such vessels, but reserved the right to go to the jury upon these facts, if the judgment should be that their effect was to vitiate the insurance. The defendants also admitted for the purposes of the hearing, that she was seaworthy for the voyage in which she was first engaged, but likewise reserved the right to go to the jury if the judgment of the Court should be against them.

Chief Justice Shaw delivered the opinion of the Court. The question here presented is purely speculative. The great business of the courts is to render judgment, not to give opinions, although the performance of that duty often requires the expression of opinions on various points, directly or incidentally involved. That judgment must be rendered upon facts obtained in some way or other—by the verdict of a jury or the agreement of parties, as the case may be; but there must be a sufficient number of facts undisputed or proved. Sometimes a case is so complicated that it is exceedingly difficult to do more than pass judgment upon the special circumstances given—than simply to put it on one side or the other of some general rule, without affording an occasion or opportunity for abstract opinions upon points of law generally applicable.

The question apparently intended to be presented in this case is, whether, if a vessel is seaworthy at the date of a policy, but requires essential repairs before the expiration of the time for which she is insured, and is subsequently lost from another cause, independent of such defects, the insured can recover on his policy? This is a purely abstract question, and there are not facts enough to enable the Court to form an opinion even upon that. Was the condition requiring repairs one of natural decay? Did it arise or not from the very perils insured against? And when and where? If from such perils, was she at home or abroad? Was she within reach of repairs, or so far distant from a port where they could be obtained as to render it hazardous to seek them? Such are some of the questions which it may become necessary to answer before the point presented can be properly passed upon. Nor is the language used sufficiently precise to enable the Court to come to a determination. The word seaworthy is commonly applied to the condition in which the vessel is when the policy attaches, and is used to express her capacity for navigating the sea. If she has no capacity for navigation, there is nothing for the policy to attach to, and the contract is void, simply because its subject does not exist. But the word may be used to express the condition of a vessel adapted to the particular purpose for which she is to be used, and then a question arises as to the duty of the insured in such a case, and its performance. Must he make her seaworthy for each new adventure? And was she fit for the voyage upon which she was sent? The possibility of such a variety of circumstances capable of being embraced within the limits of this statement, renders an abstract opinion useless and improper. The Court have said that when a single question of law upon a state of facts is presented, they will hear it; but as this case stands, it presents a question too purely abstract. The opinion, if given, would be upon a partial or limited view, and might hereafter embarrass the Court. The statement of facts must be discharged, and the case sent down for trial.

The following is the material portion of the Chief Justice's report of the case, with his proposed instructions to the jury, November Term, 1851:—

This is an action upon a policy of insurance underwritten by the defendants, April 10, 1848, whereby they cause the plaintiff to be insured to whom it might concern, payable to him in case of loss, \$6,240, on ship *Riga*, at and from the port or place where she was on March 30, 1848, at noon, to and at all ports and places to which she might proceed for one year from that time; and with a provision that if she should be at sea at the end of the year, the risk should continue at *pro rata* premium, until she arrived at her port of discharge.

There was evidence tending to show that at the time of subscribing of the policy the ship was at sea, that she afterwards arrived at Boston in the month of September with an assorted cargo, which she delivered in good order; and there was no evidence, that at the beginning of the year for which she was insured, March 30, 1848, she was not either safe in port, or in the prosecution of a voyage, on which she had sailed in a seaworthy condition, except that which might have resulted from the surveys subsequently mentioned, or that she was not a vessel capable of being made useful and fit for navigation, with suitable repairs at suitable times during the time insured.

There was also evidence that after undergoing some repairs at Boston, she sailed from thence to Norfolk in October, that she there took in a cargo of staves, which is a heavy one tending to strain a vessel, that she sailed thence for Sicily, and after being a short time at sea sprung a leak in heavy weather, as the plaintiff maintained, but which was denied by the defendants, who attributed the same to decay and weakness, in consequence of which, and at the solicitation of the crew, the master put back, and went into the port of Savannah, Georgia. That two surveys were then had, the result of which was a report of the surveyors that, in their opinion, owing to the weak state of the vessel and the decayed condition of her timbers, it was necessary that she should undergo extensive and costly repairs, in the removal of defective timbers among other things, and the substitution of new ones, though she might be in a fit condition with some calking and slight repairs to proceed to a northern port in ballast, or with a light cargo of cotton, for permanent reparation, the cost of such repairs at Savannah being estimated at \$10,000, but much less at New York or Boston.

There was evidence that she was calked and slightly repaired at Savannah, and sailed with a light cargo for New York, and on her passage, about March 3d or 4th, was burnt at sea and totally lost.

The ground of defence was that at the commencement of this risk, March 30, 1848, regarding decay only, this vessel was so much weakened and impaired in strength as not to be able to bear the ordinary perils of navigation without essential repairs, and re-placing with new the timbers thus decayed or beginning to decay, *for and during the time* of one year, for which she was insured, and if so that she was not seaworthy, within the implied warranty which the assured were bound by, and so the policy never attached.

2. If the policy did attach, the assured were under a like implied warranty or obligation to have the vessel sound, in good repair, and seaworthy at the commencement of each voyage or passage during the time, and that if they failed to perform this duty or comply with the condition, the insurers were thenceforth discharged from their contract of insurance, that it became void, so that if a loss afterward happened, though by a peril insured against, and not caused in whole or in part by such unseaworthiness arising from weakness or decay. That said vessel did sail from Norfolk on a voyage toward Sicily in an unseaworthy condition, and that from that time the underwriters were discharged from further liability on the contract.

3. That the vessel sailed from Savannah towards New York in a like unseaworthy condition, by means of which the policy became void and the defendants discharged before the loss by fire which occurred during that voyage.

But the court ruled that on a policy on time for a certain term, at all times and places, there is no *implied warranty* on the part of the assured that the vessel is seaworthy, in the *ordinary sense of that term*, either at the time of the policy underwritten, or at the day on which the policy by its terms commences the risk; but that the only implied warranty in this respect is, that the vessel is in existence as a vessel, not lost at the time fixed for the commencement of the risk, capable, if then in port, of being made useful, with proper repairs and fittings, for navigation, and is in a safe or suitable condition for such a vessel to be in, whether at sea, in port, stripped and under repairs on a suitable railway for that purpose or otherwise, and is seaworthy when she first sails from port, or if she is at sea, that she has sailed in a seaworthy condition, and is safe (*salvus*—not lost) so as to be a proper subject for a contract of insurance at the time the risk attaches; and if the vessel is in such condition and the implied warranty to this extent is not broken, the policy attaches and is not void, and the premium cannot be recovered back; but if the vessel was then lost, became a wreck, or ceased to exist as a vessel, or was, if at sea, in a condition or under circumstances in which she could not on her arrival in port be made available by reasonable or suitable repairs and fitting for navigation, then there was no subject for the policy to take effect upon, the contract would fail and be void, and the premium liable to be recovered back.

This was a question of fact for the jury. This direction was in effect such as to negative the first proposition on which the defence was placed, to wit :—that in every policy of insurance on time, there is any implied warranty on the part of the assured that the vessel is then in such a state of strength, soundness, and freedom from decay, that she must be considered reasonably capable, without replacing decayed timbers or materials, to bear the ordinary perils of navigation, during the term of time covered by the policy.

The second and third grounds of defence are these, viz :—that if the vessel was seaworthy within the previous ruling, at the inception of the risk, yet that the assured were under an implied warranty or obligation to keep the vessel seaworthy during the time for which she was insured ; and that if she was permitted to go to sea, at any time during the term, from a port or place where repairs, supplies, and equipments could be obtained, in an unseaworthy condition, the insurers were thereby discharged from further liability on the policy ; and that they were thus discharged by the fact that this vessel was permitted to sail from Norfolk, where repairs might be obtained, on a voyage to Sicily in an unseaworthy condition ; also that she was suffered to depart from the port of Savannah in an unseaworthy condition, both of which events preceded the loss by fire on the homeward voyage.

On this subject the chief justice proposed to rule and instruct the jury, that if the vessel was seaworthy at the inception of the risk, the policy attached, and that although it was the duty of the assured, relying on the policy for indemnity, to keep the vessel sound, staunch, and suitably fitted to bear the ordinary perils of navigation, yet the obligation to do so was not a warranty of seaworthiness, in the ordinary sense of that term, so that a failure to perform it would determine and put an end to the contract, and discharge the underwriters from their liability from any or all perils ; but the obligation of the assured was to this effect, that if they failed to perform it and the vessel should become unseaworthy during the term, and the vessel should be afterwards lost from a cause attributable in whole or in part to such default on the part of the assured, the underwriters would not be responsible for such loss, because not a risk insured against.

But as the policy is not rendered void by such unseaworthiness, if the vessel be subsequently lost by a peril insured against, not caused in whole or in part by such default of the assured, they would be entitled to recover. In applying this rule the chief justice proposed to direct the jury, that the sailing of a vessel from Norfolk on a voyage to Sicily, and afterwards from Savannah to New York, although in an unseaworthy condition, was not a breach of warranty, which annulled and rendered the policy void, if the loss was not attributable to such unseaworthiness, and if the vessel within the term was lost by fire, which was an independent peril insured against, the underwriters were liable for the loss.

The defendants' counsel, relying upon the grounds of law above stated, and objecting to the above directions, declined going to the jury to find upon the evidence that the vessel was unseaworthy at the time of the inception of the risk, according to the directions above stated ; the case was therefore taken from the jury, and the correctness of the directions given to be submitted to the whole court.

The case was argued at the last term, and on Monday, 21st inst., the opinion of the court was given, sustaining the above proposed directions and rulings.

Judgment for plaintiff for total loss.

C. G. Loring for plaintiff. S. Bartlett for defendants.

COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE AND REVIEW.

REVIEW OF THE REPORT OF THE SECRETARY OF THE TREASURY—INCREASED REVENUE OF THE COUNTRY—STATISTICS OF THE COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES—DECLINE IN SHIPMENTS OF SPECIE—BALANCE AND PROFITS OF FOREIGN COMMERCE—PROPOSED MODIFICATIONS OF THE TARIFF—INCREASE OF THE FREE LIST—CONDITION OF THE MONEY MARKETS IN ALL SECTIONS OF THE COUNTRY—AVAILABILITY OF RAILROAD BONDS—CONDITION OF THE BANKS—FINANCIAL CONDITION OF EUROPEAN MARKETS—STOCKS, AND THE STOCK MARKET—SUPPLY OF GOLD FROM CALIFORNIA, AND DEPOSITS AND COINAGE AT THE MINT—FOREIGN COMMERCE OF THE COUNTRY TO NOVEMBER 30TH—CASH DUTIES AT BOSTON, PHILADELPHIA, AND NEW YORK—FOREIGN IMPORTS AT NEW YORK FOR NOVEMBER AND SINCE JANUARY FIRST—INCREASE IN THE WAREHOUSING BUSINESS—IMPORTS OF FOREIGN DRY GOODS AT NEW YORK FOR NOVEMBER AND SINCE JANUARY FIRST—EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK FOR NOVEMBER AND SINCE JANUARY FIRST, SHOWING A VERY GREAT INCREASE FROM FORMER YEARS—COMPARATIVE SHIPMENTS OF CERTAIN LEADING ARTICLES OF PRODUCE UP TO DECEMBER 16TH—INCREASE IN EXPORTS OF BREADSTUFFS—CROP, AND PROSPECTIVE SHIPMENTS OF CEREALS AT THE SOUTH—LIMITED RECEIPTS OF COTTON, &c., &c.

In a review of the commercial history of the country since the date of our last, the most important topics which claim our attention are embraced in the Report of the Secretary of the Treasury, recently laid before Congress. The increase in the revenue of the country, which for the last fiscal year exceeded the estimates upwards of ten millions of dollars, had already been noticed in our pages; but the actual summary of the imports exceeded all previous calculation. In the absence of the full official tables the following comparative totals will be found of interest:—

FOREIGN COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES.

Year ending June 30th.	Total Imports.	Exports of Domestic prod'ce.	Exports of Foreign pro'e.	Exports of Specie.	Total Exports.
1844.....	\$108,435,085	\$99,531,774	\$6,214,058	\$5,454,214	\$111,206,046
1845.....	117,254,564	98,455,330	7,584,781	8,606,495	114,646,606
1846.....	121,691,797	101,718,042	7,865,206	3,905,268	118,488,516
1847.....	146,545,638	150,574,844	6,166,754	1,907,024	158,648,622
1848.....	154,998,928	180,203,709	7,986,802	15,841,616	164,032,131
1849.....	147,857,439	181,710,081	8,641,091	5,404,648	145,755,820
1850.....	178,138,318	184,900,233	9,475,493	7,522,994	161,898,720
1851.....	216,224,932	178,620,188	10,295,121	29,472,752	218,388,011
1852.....	212,613,282	154,931,147	12,037,043	49,674,135	209,641,625
1853.....	267,978,647	189,869,162	13,096,213	27,486,875	230,452,250

From this it will be seen that the total imports of the country for the fiscal year ending June 30th, 1853, exceeded those of the previous year \$55,365,365, while the total exports have increased only \$20,810,625. The exports of specie, however, have fallen off \$22,000,000, so that the exports of merchandise and produce have actually increased \$32,763,435, an enormous excess, and altogether unparalleled in the history of our Commerce. The total difference between the declared value of the imports and the exports for the year is \$37,526,397, an amount which the secretary in his report says has been exceeded by the profits on our exports and the freight of our vessels. This statement has been disputed by many journals of the opposite political party, who assert that this difference has been made up by the sale to foreign capitalists of our various railway, and other stocks and bonds. The falling off in the shipments of specie (which show a decline of about 45 per cent,) would indicate that the

bulk of our increased imports have been paid for in something besides coin, while there must be added to the imports, in a fair estimate of our indebtedness, the government bonds forming part of our national debt, which have been sent home for redemption in answer to the call of the secretary. If we had no credits abroad the question would be easily settled, and in that case the excess of imports over exports would be looked upon as a sign of increasing wealth. A farmer who sells produce to the value of \$1,000, and with it buys other productions to the value of \$1,500, has cleared \$500 by the transaction. Many will not be able to see why a nation which ships its produce to the value of \$230,000,000, and imports for it other produce to the value of \$267,000,000, is not also a gainer by the exchange. If it could be distinctly shown that such an exchange was fairly made, we believe the mysterious theorizing upon this subject would be exploded; but credit steps in, and we are told that we have rolled up a great debt which is still hanging over us. Our own opinion is, that the amount of such indebtedness is greatly overrated, and that it would not be in the power of any nation, or of all nations, to injure our standing or credit if an universal settlement of balances were called for to-morrow.

In one respect this country occupies an anomalous position among the nations of the globe; our revenue is so much above our necessities as to be really embarrassing, and the Committee of Ways and Means in Congress will find their chief occupation during the coming session, in maturing a plan for the depletion of the treasury. The Secretary of the Treasury proposes to modify the tariff by affixing a uniform duty of 100 per cent upon foreign liquors, &c., (such as is now levied,) and an uniform duty of 25 per cent upon all other articles not included in the free list. The latter he proposes greatly to increase by exempting from duty, linens, manufacturers dye-stuffs, raw silks, wool with less than ten per cent, and a variety of other articles which will be found enumerated elsewhere. These modifications, which it is supposed would reduce the receipts from customs about \$12,500,000 per annum, have most of them been received with favor by a large majority of the people, but it is doubtful if they can all be effected. Congress will not probably abolish the duty on linens, as if any discrimination is to be used in the laying of imposts, our infant linen manufactures are deserving of consideration. The maximum price of wool to be imported free of duty should not be less than 15 cents, and if all descriptions of wool were included in the free list, it would have the effect, not only to strengthen and encourage our woollen fabricants, but eventually to provide a larger market and richer reward to the energetic wool-grower himself. On the whole, although the report of the secretary is unpretending in style, it may be classed among the most successful documents which have ever emanated from the Treasury Department.

The financial condition of the country has undergone no important change since our last, but the effects of the money pressure are still plainly apparent in all sections, although the crisis has been safely passed. In Boston, New York, and Philadelphia, the value of capital, as shown by the street rates for prime business paper, is about 9 or 10 per cent per annum, and at this rate large amounts can be readily obtained. Confidence, however, is not fully established, and second or third class securities are almost unsaleable. Even railroad bonds of the better class, if not strictly rateable as *prime*, are negotiated with difficul-

ty, and financial schemes which would have been adopted by acclamation a twelvemonth since, are now vetoed with scarcely a dissenting voice. Throughout the interior, both South and West, and more especially in the South and Southwest, currency of all kinds is very scarce, and it is difficult to obtain enough for the transaction of the regular business now pressing upon merchants, traders, and forwarders. How far this will affect the trade of the coming season, we cannot predict, but we think the chief difficulty to be apprehended is from this source. In some parts of New England, and especially in the manufacturing districts of Connecticut, the scarcity of available funds is almost oppressive, owing to the sudden but necessary curtailment of banking facilities. New Haven and Hartford have suffered to a considerable extent from association with certain New York operators, who have become embarrassed in their efforts to build railroads or carry on other schemes of improvement, chiefly upon borrowed capital; and it is estimated that those two cities alone hold over \$1,500,000 of second class railroad and other bonds, which cannot at present be converted into cash means. A very large class of these securities, in the larger cities are in the hands of private capitalists abundantly able to hold them, most of whom are too much chagrined to make any complaint. These bonds may eventually be good, but the holders must put their own shoulders to the work, in order to effect their own release.

The banks in most sections are steadily expanding, and the change is considerable from the lowest point reached during the height of the pressure. The following will show the course of the New York city banks, since the commencement of the weekly statements required by law:—

Week ending.	Average amount of Loans and Discounts.	Average amount of Specie.	Average amount of Circulation.	Average amount of Deposits.
August 6.....	\$97,899,499	\$9,746,441	\$9,513,053	\$60,579,797
August 13.....	94,683,282	10,653,518	9,451,943	57,657,504
August 20.....	94,074,717	11,082,274	9,389,727	57,307,223
August 27.....	92,887,618	11,319,040	9,427,191	57,431,891
September 3.....	91,741,388	11,268,049	9,554,294	57,602,970
September 10.....	91,108,347	11,880,693	9,597,336	57,545,164
September 17.....	90,190,589	11,860,235	9,566,723	57,612,301
September 24.....	90,092,765	11,340,925	9,477,541	58,312,334
October 1.....	90,149,540	11,231,912	9,521,665	57,968,661
October 8.....	89,128,998	10,266,602	9,673,458	57,985,760
October 15.....	87,887,273	11,330,172	9,464,714	59,068,674
October 22.....	85,367,931	10,303,254	9,388,543	55,748,729
October 29.....	83,400,321	10,866,672	9,300,350	53,335,462
November 5.....	83,092,630	11,771,880	9,492,158	55,500,977
November 12.....	82,882,409	12,823,575	9,287,629	56,201,007
November 19.....	83,717,622	13,691,324	9,151,443	57,446,424
November 26.....	84,802,530	13,343,196	9,032,769	58,673,076
December 3.....	85,824,756	12,830,772	9,153,586	58,435,207
December 10.....	86,708,028	12,493,760	9,075,704	57,838,076
December 17.....	87,865,073	12,166,020	8,939,830	58,312,478

It will be seen from this that the week ending November 12 was the turning point of the bank movement, and that if the expansion be as gradual as the contraction, it will take at least two months from the present date to reach the position occupied by these banks when the alarm was first given.

The financial condition of foreign States, and especially of England, is still far from favorable. The continued current of specie from London to the continent,

accelerated by the movements of Russia, have kept up an uneasiness in British financial circles, which only a reaction in the course of the precious metals will allay. The embarrassments growing out of the Eastern question, now too well known to need discussion here, have added to this unsettled feeling in the various European markets, and retarded the growing prosperity of the commercial classes.

There has been less activity in stock speculations since our last, but this has not been owing altogether to the stringency in the money market. The number of adventurers in this line of business has greatly decreased. The stock market is never animated for any length of time, unless persons engaged in other and more legitimate pursuits—usually known as “outsiders”—are drawn into the whirl of speculation. The experiences of the past year, and especially of the last six months, have not been favorable to a renewal of this excitement, and we doubt if, for some time to come, there will be any general movement originating with merchants engaged in regular business. We have frequently hinted in former numbers at the impropriety of stock speculations on the part of clerks, accountants, bank officers, &c., and the daily developments of breaches of trust in our large cities where facilities for such a desperate course are freely offered, will, we trust, point our warning with a directness of illustration sufficient to excite general attention.

The receipts of gold from California for the month of November were less than for the same month of the last year; but the deposits of silver at the mint were larger:—

	DEPOSITS FOR NOVEMBER.		
	Gold from California.	Other Sources.	Silver.
Philadelphia mint.....	\$3,460,000	\$170,000	\$283,000
			Total.
			\$3,913,000

The total gold deposits for the first eleven months of the years 1851, 1852 and 1853, were as follows:—

	1851.	1852.	1853.
January.....	\$5,071,669	\$4,161,688	\$4,962,962
February.....	3,004,970	3,010,222	3,548,528
March.....	2,880,271	3,892,156	7,533,752
April.....	2,288,353	3,091,037	4,766,000
May.....	3,269,491	4,335,578	4,425,000
June.....	3,637,560	6,689,474	4,545,179
July.....	3,127,517	4,193,880	3,505,331
August.....	4,135,312	2,671,533	4,512,000
September.....	4,046,799	4,253,687	3,027,805
October.....	4,743,584	4,140,069	4,452,000
November.....	5,492,454	7,279,941	3,680,000
Total.....	\$42,287,980	\$47,719,295	\$48,908,552

COINAGE AT THE PHILADELPHIA MINT FOR NOVEMBER.

GOLD.			SILVER.		
	Pieces.	Value.		Pieces.	Value.
Double eagles.....	20,912	\$418,240	Half dollars.....	160,000	\$80,000
Half eagles.....	Quarter dollars ..	1,352,000	338,000
Quarter eagles.....	63,612	159,080	Dimes.....	2,960,000	296,000
Gold dollars.....	355,238	355,238	Half dimes.....	3,120,000	156,000
Total.....	439,762	\$932,508	Total silver....	7,592,000	\$870,000
Gold bars.....	827,979	Cents.....	268,000	2,688
Total gold.....		\$1,760,487	Total.....		\$2,633,175

The coinage at Philadelphia during the first eleven months of the present year, has been as follows:—

	Gold.	Silver.	Copper.	Total.
January.....	\$4,809,388	\$93,750	\$3,860 79	\$4,906,998 79
February.....	2,931,280	97,300	2,000 31	3,030,580 31
March.....	5,693,808	163,800	4,131 26	5,851,739 26
April.....	5,305,080	419,007	2,511 54	5,726,598 54
May.....	2,823,506	608,900	9,120 19	3,441,135 19
June.....	4,774,246	650,000	3,667 32	2,427,913 32
July.....	4,459,469	710,000	4,832 28	5,171,301 28
August.....	3,120,929	850,000	5,591 60	3,976,520 60
September.....	4,221,598	1,205,000	3,100 00	5,429,698 00
October.....	5,265,877	1,210,000	8,500 00	6,484,377 00
November.....	1,760,487	870,000	2,688 44	2,633,175 44
Total.....	\$45,165,668	\$6,877,666	\$47,003 73	\$52,089,037 73

The receipts of gold since December 1st have been on a larger scale, and will make the comparison more in favor of the current year.

The following is a statement of the deposits and coinage at the New Orleans branch mint, for the month of November, 1853:—

DEPOSITS.		COINAGE.	
California gold.....	\$229,319 96	12,500 eagles.....	\$135,000
Foreign do.....	6,360 58		\$135,000
	\$235,680 54	40,000 half dollars.....	20,000
Silver parted from California		152,000 quarter dollars.....	38,000
gold.....	1,635 14	170,000 dimes.....	17,000
Silver from other sources...	450,288 42	700,000 half dimes.....	35,000
Total value of deposits ..	\$888,604 10	1,078,500 pieces.	
		Total value of coinage.....	\$245,000

We have already shown the large increase in the imports from foreign ports into the United States down to June 30, which is the close of the fiscal year. We have the means of extending this comparison at some of the ports to the 30th of November. The duties received at both Philadelphia and Boston, show that the imports continue in excess of last year:—

CASH DUTIES ON IMPORTS FOR NOVEMBER.

	1852.	1853.	Increase.
Boston.....	\$530,443 24	\$637,589 21	\$107,145 97
Philadelphia.....	206,052 30	312,046 05	105,993 75
	\$736,495 54	\$949,635 26	\$213,139 72

The increase at New York is still greater, and we annex a comparative summary from the Custom-house records:—

CASH DUTIES RECEIVED AT THE PORT OF NEW YORK.

	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
First quarter	\$6,996,656 48	\$9,295,257 30	\$7,617,887 72	\$11,125,500 47
Second quarter.....	6,033,253 57	7,357,408 30	6,632,425 16	10,041,829 08
Third quarter.....	10,190,324 37	9,402,997 30	10,281,190 03	13,613,105 14
In October	2,112,906 29	1,958,516 17	2,392,109 57	2,705,694 83
In November.....	1,642,125 27	1,488,740 09	2,051,476 35	2,642,985 92
Total 11 months.	\$26,975,265 98	\$29,502,919 16	\$28,975,088 83	\$40,129,114 89

The following will show the comparative imports :—

FOREIGN IMPORTS AT NEW YORK FOR NOVEMBER.

	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
Entered for consumption....	\$5,375,652	\$4,399,085	\$7,167,851	\$9,232,007
Entered for warehousing....	798,147	938,056	596,068	2,864,350
Free goods	416,191	415,838	891,382	334,228
Specie.....	13,580	218,473	80,766	154,342
Total entered at the port....	\$6,603,570	\$5,971,452	\$8,736,067	\$12,584,927
Withdrawn from warehouse.	905,006	1,377,100	1,047,972	1,333,068

This shows an increase of receipts at New York for the month, of \$3,848,860, which is made up in great part of the goods warehoused, the increase in that item being \$2,268,282. This large increase in the warehousing business has not been altogether owing to the pressure in the money market, and the consequent storage of goods to avoid the payment of duties; nor to so great an extent as many think, to the earlier shipments of goods for the spring trade. It is owing chiefly to the increase of direct shipments to New York of goods destined for other ports, which are entered at that port in bond, and being transferred for other custom-house districts, do not appear in the withdrawals for consumption, or in the stock on hand; and to the large reshipments to foreign ports. This is more fully seen in the comparison for the previous months of the year :—

FOREIGN IMPORTS AT NEW YORK FOR ELEVEN MONTHS FROM JANUARY 1st.

	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
Entered for consumption....	\$92,606,150	\$100,615,950	\$98,248,742	\$144,007,797
Entered for warehousing....	14,239,596	12,852,967	7,730,384	22,122,462
Free goods	8,260,538	9,144,170	11,276,195	11,721,200
Specie.....	16,109,965	2,024,167	2,295,410	2,317,901
Total entered at the port....	\$131,316,249	\$124,637,254	\$119,550,731	\$180,169,360
Withdrawn from warehouse.	10,231,496	12,781,070	14,511,468	14,204,069

This shows an increase in the imports at New York for the last eleven months, of \$60,618,629 as compared with the same period of 1852, \$55,532,106 as compared with 1851, and \$48,853,111 as compared with 1850. The large item of specie in the summary for the last-named year includes, however, nearly ten millions of California gold received via New Grenada. A careful comparison of the above shows that the increased receipts for warehousing have run throughout the season, while the withdrawals for consumption are actually less. The stock on hand is but little larger than it was at the same date of last year, so that the difference must have been transferred to other ports, or re-shipped in bond.

Many writers upon this subject seem to infer that the great increase in the imports from foreign ports is made up exclusively of dry goods, or manufactured fabrics, while it can be readily shown that only about one-half of the excess is in merchandise of this description. The following will show the comparative receipts of dry goods at the same port for the month of November, and since January 1st:—

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN DRY GOODS AT NEW YORK FOR THE MONTH OF NOVEMBER.

ENTERED FOR CONSUMPTION.

	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
Manufactures of wool.....	\$379,999	\$285,308	\$633,451	\$1,012,335
Manufactures of cotton.....	267,616	264,439	370,677	654,878
Manufactures of silk.....	673,438	347,862	969,417	1,178,326
Manufactures of flax.....	323,704	321,715	459,882	512,680
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	240,445	188,685	208,849	217,279
Total.....	\$1,884,502	\$1,358,009	\$2,637,276	\$3,575,498

WITHDRAWN FROM WAREHOUSE.

	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
Manufactures of wool.....	\$54,997	\$52,948	\$43,836	\$116,951
Manufactures of cotton.....	49,675	84,911	13,960	54,887
Manufactures of silk.....	57,088	184,560	64,497	123,471
Manufactures of flax.....	32,396	25,160	20,179	58,892
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	18,176	56,083	24,391	57,842
Total.....	\$212,332	\$353,662	\$166,863	\$412,043
Add entered for consumption.....	1,884,502	1,358,009	2,637,276	3,575,498
Total thrown on the market.....	\$2,096,834	\$1,711,671	\$2,804,139	\$3,987,541

ENTERED FOR WAREHOUSING.

	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
Manufactures of wool.....	\$79,641	\$87,820	\$53,778	\$341,764
Manufactures of cotton.....	101,690	81,087	58,056	376,111
Manufactures of silk.....	57,224	172,607	76,603	316,371
Manufactures of flax.....	49,068	101,206	9,373	146,925
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	45,597	66,542	41,123	27,448
Total.....	\$333,220	\$509,212	\$243,933	\$1,208,219
Add entered for consumption.....	1,884,502	1,358,009	2,637,276	3,575,498
Total entered at the port.....	\$2,217,722	\$1,867,221	\$2,881,209	\$4,783,717

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN DRY GOODS AT NEW YORK FOR ELEVEN MONTHS FROM JAN. 1ST.

ENTERED FOR CONSUMPTION.

	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
Manufactures of wool.....	\$14,483,062	\$12,668,004	\$13,790,139	\$24,001,971
Manufactures of cotton.....	9,601,966	8,941,972	8,664,810	13,377,261
Manufactures of silk.....	18,546,459	20,863,773	19,306,978	30,100,877
Manufactures of flax.....	7,045,810	5,766,705	5,654,618	7,347,873
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	2,555,614	3,421,639	3,848,048	4,967,817
Total.....	\$52,222,911	\$51,652,093	\$51,264,593	\$79,795,799

WITHDRAWN FROM WAREHOUSE.

	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
Manufactures of wool.....	\$1,744,877	\$1,819,885	\$1,561,075	\$2,029,660
Manufactures of cotton.....	1,171,289	1,320,439	1,333,761	986,857
Manufactures of silk.....	1,085,084	1,564,921	1,844,230	1,340,906
Manufactures of flax.....	427,014	586,304	765,305	289,646
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	145,290	436,268	353,499	357,589
Total.....	\$4,573,554	\$5,717,817	\$5,857,870	\$5,004,608
Add entered for consumption....	52,232,911	51,652,093	51,264,593	79,795,799
Total thrown on the market.....	\$56,806,465	\$57,869,910	\$57,122,463	\$84,800,407

ENTERED FOR WAREHOUSING.

	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
Manufactures of wool.....	\$2,079,980	\$2,155,437	\$1,243,850	\$2,752,402
Manufactures of cotton.....	1,850,928	1,513,372	860,665	1,780,460
Manufactures of silk.....	1,329,806	2,461,450	1,909,168	1,931,540
Manufactures of flax.....	712,912	819,971	837,741	599,848
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	166,919	498,298	407,698	364,605
Total.....	\$6,140,545	\$7,448,528	\$4,759,122	\$7,428,855
Add entered for consumption....	52,232,911	51,652,093	51,264,593	79,795,799
Total entered at the port.....	\$58,373,456	\$59,100,621	\$56,023,715	\$87,224,654

This increase in the imports, large as it justly appears, bears no comparison to the increase in the exports, which, for the last two months, have been larger from the port of New York than ever before known:—

EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS FOR NOVEMBER.

	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
Domestic produce.....	\$3,677,657	\$2,451,511	\$3,529,447	\$7,489,937
Foreign merchandise (free)...	37,723	62,368	27,634	48,088
“ “ (dutiable)...	676,696	397,597	541,296	739,872
Specie.....	905,394	5,033,996	809,813	3,855,775
Total.....	\$5,297,470	\$7,945,472	\$4,908,190	\$12,133,672
Total, exclusive of specie..	4,392,076	2,911,476	4,098,377	8,277,897

The increase here seen is enormous—exceeding the shipment of the same month of last year more than 100 per cent. A less comparative increase is seen in the total since January 1st, as the earliest months of the year witnessed less activity in shipments of produce:—

EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS FOR ELEVEN MONTHS FROM JAN. 1.

	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
Domestic produce.....	\$40,512,499	\$36,652,339	\$37,768,933	\$53,374,056
Foreign merchandise (free)....	533,037	699,895	827,146	1,265,771
“ “ (dutiable)....	4,937,933	3,672,624	4,810,270	4,851,965
Specie.....	8,774,188	38,074,974	23,915,950	23,621,505
Total.....	\$54,757,657	\$79,099,832	\$66,822,299	\$83,113,297
Total, exclusive of specie..	45,983,469	41,024,858	42,906,349	59,491,792

The ratio of increase as shown in November has been continued throughout most of December, and there is every probability that the shipments will continue larger, at least into the spring. The following will show the comparative ex-

ports of some of the leading articles of domestic produce, from New York to foreign ports from January 1st to December 16th:—

EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS OF CERTAIN LEADING ARTICLES OF DOMESTIC PRODUCE.

	1852.	1853.		1852.	1853.
Ashes—pots....bbls.	16,632	10,483	Naval stores....bbls.	511,926	442,489
pearls.....	1,088	796	Oils, whale....galls.	58,185	268,267
Beeswax.....lbs.	408,901	196,246	sperm.....	791,829	913,615
<i>Breadstuffs—</i>			lard.....	26,899	52,649
Wheat flour..bbls.	1,311,495	1,953,164	linseed.....	11,962	20,150
Rye flour.....	8,289	4,066	<i>Provisions—</i>		
Corn meal.....	44,819	42,230	Pork.....bbls.	38,747	69,537
Wheat.....bush.	3,012,718	6,714,871	Beef.....	47,031	48,832
Rye.....	236,460	17,421	Cut meats....lbs.	1,497,599	7,968,280
Oats.....	10,212	63,290	Butter.....	631,180	1,866,443
Barley.....	367	100	Cheese.....	1,068,939	7,013,097
Corn.....	753,928	943,985	Lard.....	4,440,521	6,601,537
Candles, mold..boxes	57,490	45,990	Rice.....trcs.	25,206	24,349
sperm.....	3,805	5,285	Tallow.....lbs.	408,096	2,879,034
Coal.....tons	37,135	31,440	Tobacco, crude..pkgs.	24,245	23,854
Cotton.....bales	331,574	369,183	Do., manufactured.lbs.	4,515,207	5,556,464
Hay.....	7,326	4,720	Whalebone.....	1,029,148	3,008,407
Hops.....	744	325			

This shows a very large increase in breadstuffs, equal to an increase of about 1,500,000 bbls. of flour. This difference is astonishing, and will go far to explain the prosperity of the country even while passing through a financial crisis, which would otherwise have marked its progress by the ruin of all whose business had been expanded without a sufficient basis. The demand for our cereals is still large—not only from France and England, but also from central Europe. How this demand is to be supplied, now that inland navigation at the North has been closed, has puzzled many. The railroads can bring but little more than sufficient to supply the consumption at home, while the stock at the northern seaports is small. We think, however, that sufficient attention has not been given to the grain resources of the South. The crop of wheat in the Southern States has been of unusually good quality; and the condition of shipping parcels has been farther improved by a care in preparing it for market never before exercised. The White Wheat has been carefully separated from the Red, and thus the prices realized for the cereal crop at the South will be far beyond the usual average. There were some exceptions to this in the earlier shipments, sent forward in too green a state, but all of the later parcels are unusually fine. We shall be much mistaken if the clearances of grain from southern ports to foreign countries for the present and coming season do not show a large increase. Cotton comes forward slowly, owing to a variety of causes heretofore stated, in addition to the scarcity of funds in the cotton districts, which prevents as much activity in this trade as could be desired.

JOURNAL OF BANKING, CURRENCY, AND FINANCE.

CONDITION OF THE BANKS OF ILLINOIS.

STATEMENT OF THE CONDITION OF THE BANKS OF THE STATE OF ILLINOIS, ON MONDAY,
APRIL 4, 1853.

Names of Banks.	RESOURCES.				LIABILITIES.	
	Notes discounted.	Stocks of other States.*	Specie.	Total resources.	Capital stock paid in.	Circulation.
Alton Bank	\$15,660	\$40,400	\$11,740	\$123,787	\$57,240	\$30,291
Belvidere Bank		50,000	15,500	119,605	67,900	50,000
Bank of Galena		50,000		50,000	50,000	
Bank of Rockford		50,000	11,391	107,096	57,101	49,995
Bank of Elgin	55,600	52,000	7,526	132,834	50,000	85,918
Clarks' Exchange Bank		59,000	44,898	660,301	288,380	249,019
Commercial Bank	80,000	50,000	11,481	105,579	50,000	50,000
Central Bank	78,000	80,000	26,740	254,972	89,500	80,000
Du Page County Bank	35,380	50,000	6,206	128,555	50,000	49,784
Marine Bank of Chicago		50,000	51,118	381,088	150,000	167,468
Merchts' & Mechs' Bk of C.	125,588	50,000	14,665	260,296	50,000	54,700
Stock Security Bank	40,350	95,000	15,597	194,159	95,000	74,000
The City Bank of Chicago		60,000	10,475	127,785	66,000	59,985
The Rock Island Bank	4,076	50,000	10,183	129,602	50,000	49,995
The Quincy City Bank	49,992	50,000	44,497	149,459	50,000	14,025
The Chicago Bank			25,000	218,842	85,583	85,576
The Bank of Ottawa	19,209	50,000	12,163	107,526	50,000	46,185
The Bk. of Lucas & Simonds	58,745	50,000	12,000	129,496	58,751	38,745
The Bank of America		10,000	50,000	100,645	50,000	50,000
The Union Bank		50,000	15,729	109,995	60,000	49,995
The Merchts' & Farmers' Bk.	73,801	56,350	15,645	202,745	77,000	55,339
The Southern Bk of Illinois		50,000	6,970	81,643	50,000	15,773
The McLean Co. Bank		50,000		50,000	50,000	
		586,404	1,152,950	419,531	3,926,049	1,702,456
					1,351,788	

SUMMARY STATEMENT OF THE ABOVE-NAMED BANKS.

Notes and bills discounted	\$586,404
Due from other banks and bankers	880,541
Stocks of other States at the rate at which received by Auditor	1,152,956
Illinois stocks at rate at which received by Auditor—interest paying ..	408,939
Do. non-interest paying	89,177
Notes of other banks on hand	233,576
Real estate	13,202
Expense account	12,171
Amount paid for stocks over value at which received by Auditor	129,554
Total resources	3,926,049

LIABILITIES.

Capital stock paid in	\$1,702,456
Circulation	1,351,788
Due other banks and bankers	315,441
Bills which banks have accepted and are liable for ..	14,116
Due to depositors	522,476
Profits due company stockholders	19,769
Total liabilities	3,926,049

Cents are omitted in the above table for the sake of convenience.

* At the rate at which received by the Auditor.

THE GOLD FIELDS OF THE WORLD.

A little work entitled "Notes on the Distribution of Gold throughout the World," from the pen of a gentleman named Wyld, has just been issued in London. It furnishes much useful information. According to Mr. Wyld, small particles of gold are sometimes found in the Cornish mines and tin-streams of Great Britain, but heretofore not to a sufficient extent to authorize any particular attention to be paid to them. Gold, in small quantities, has often been found in various other sections of England and Scotland. In Ireland, the only remarkable gold district is on the east shore in Wicklow. It was found in 1796, and the amount raised did not exceed £10,000. In France, gold is found at Gardette, in the Isere, in the rivers of the Rhone, Rhine and Garonne, and in the mountains of Cevennes and Languedoc.

"The rivers of Spain and Portugal have gold sands but they are not now wrought. At Adissa, in the St. Ubes district, a gold mine was for some time worked; the produce in 1815 was 41 lbs.; 1816, 18 lbs.; 1817, 11 lbs.; 1818, 12 lbs.; 1819, 13 lbs.; 1820, 12 lbs.; 1822, 18 lbs. The total value of the produce in seven years was only about £5,000.

"Except in the Alpine regions, no considerable traces of gold are found in Italy. In Savoy, it is reported, river deposits have lately been discovered. In Sicily a mine, stated to have been formerly worked for gold, lies in the mountains north-west of Taormina. Pesterana, in the Alps, is one of the oldest gold mines.

"In Germany and the Germanic States gold has been found in many localities, and was formerly extracted to a great extent in Bohemia. It is also obtained from the Hartz, the Mulda, Bavaria and Baden. Gold is got from the arsenious ores of Silesia. In Hungary gold is raised from the mines of Schenmitz and Kremnitz, being the richest for this mineral in Europe. The yield is taken at 1,060 lbs. of gold yearly, worth £35,000. In 1848, 40 lbs. of gold was found in granite, in Salzburg, and 3 lbs. in Illyria. Transylvania is another rich district, and yields 1,375 lbs. of gold yearly. In the Banat of Temeswar 60 lbs. of gold was obtained in 1848. One estimate of the whole produce of gold in Austria is 4,000 lbs. yearly, and in twenty-six years 85,000 lbs. In Bohemia are gold washings on the Iser. In Salzburg are gold mines which yielded 35 lbs. of gold yearly. In the Tyrol are gold washings, two miles from Zell. In the Danube are washings, between Vienna and Pesth.

"In Sweden there are several gold mines. That of Adelfors, in Smaland, formerly yielded 15 to 20 lbs. of gold yearly, but now, it is said, only 1 or 2 lbs. The working began in 1738. The Fahlun mines yield about 2 lbs. yearly. In Norway is the gold mine of Edswold, in the Rommarge district. At Kongsberg, in Norway, gold has been found which was coined by Christian IV.

"Turkey has gold in several districts.

"In Russia the chief gold deposits are on the Asiatic side of the Ural mountains; but in 1739 a gold mine was found and worked in Olonetz. The total produce of Russia from Europe and Asia was, in the beginning of this century, estimated at 42,675 lbs., or about £1,800,000 yearly. In 1830 the amount was estimated at 15,000 lbs., and at the like amount in 1831; in 1835 at 12,280 lbs.; in 1842 at 41,009 lbs.; in 1843 at 55,000 lbs.; in 1847, 73,300 lbs.; in 1848, 75,600 lbs.; in 1849, 69,600 lbs. The production of gold in Russia in 1847 was about £4,000,000; in 1848 something more, and in 1849 about £3,500,000. The following shows the gradual produce of gold from Siberia:—

	lbs.		lbs.		lbs.
1829.....	55	1834.....	2,871	1839.....	8,025
1830.....	465	1835.....	4,054	1840.....	11,202
1831.....	453	1836.....	4,610	1841.....	15,720
1832.....	965	1837.....	5,828	1842.....	27,732
1833.....	1,600	1838.....	8,460	1843.....	40,863

"In Hindoestan gold is found in several regions; also in China, Malacca, Japan, Borneo, New Guinea, New Caledonia, and New Zealand. The chief Australian gold diggings hitherto reported are connected with the basin of the river Murray. By the latest accounts, gold was found over a length of 400 miles and a breadth of 500 miles. The first shire in which gold was found was that of Bathurst, in New South Wales.

"In 1850 the discoveries of gold in La Chaudiere river and the neighboring brooks,

in Lower Canada, was confirmed. This gold basin is of considerable extent, reaching into Maine, and yields auriferous quartz. In the winter of 1852, rich and extensive gold deposits were discovered on the estate of the British American Land Company, in the district of Sherbrooke.

"The eastern gold region of the United States is considered to begin in Virginia, extending all through North Carolina, along the northern part of South Carolina, and thence north-westerly into Alabama, terminating in Tennessee. The diggings are supposed to be pretty well worked out, though very productive at times. A lump from a branch of the Rocky river weighed 28 lbs. Gold is found in Virginia, and the workings in 1830 reached \$486,000; or about £100,000, and in 1843 \$1,200,000, or a quarter of a million; the whole up to that period being \$10,000,000, or £2,000,000.

"The existence of gold dust in New California was known at an early period. The gold diggings of Upper or New California now embrace the whole basin of the Sacramento. Large deposits have been found in the neighboring English settlement of Vancouver's Island, and also upon Queen Charlotte's Island. In Oregon, in Utah, and all the countries bordering on California, gold is found.

"The west coast of America is, perhaps, the region having the greatest number of gold deposits. Between 20° to 45° north lat. gold is found everywhere. In Ecuador, in Bolivia, at Carabaya and other places in Peru, great gold deposits have been recognized.

"The production of gold in Mexico, in 1844 and 1845, was about \$1,300,000 yearly, but in what proportions obtained is not known.

"In Central America gold is worked at Del Aquacato, in Costa Rica, and elsewhere. In 1823 the yield was 72 lbs., 1824, 263 lbs., and 1825, 260 lbs.

"The Isthmus of Central America, from the Bay of Chiriqui to the Gulf of Darien, is a great gold field. From the imperfect manner in which the accounts were kept of the gold products of these districts under the Spanish rule, no accurate result can be obtained; but, from the royalties paid to the provincial governments, it may be assumed that, up to the year 1804, the yearly product of gold was at least one million sterling. The sands of the beach at Panama, and the country around the city, contain particles of gold; and when the railway across the Isthmus, and the ship canal of Darien shall be completed, this country may again yield its mineral treasures of gold.

"In New Granada gold is found in the Central and Western Andes. The yield is about £500,000 yearly. In most of the rivers of the west coast of South America, and in the Cordilleras, gold is found. In Peru the average yield is £100,000 yearly. The neighboring country of Bolivia yields £60,000. There are many gold mines in Chili. In the Great Exhibition there was a lump of gold ore weighing three hundredweight. The average yearly produce is £160,000, but was formerly £400,000. The amount of gold coined in the Valparaiso mint for the six months of last year, including July, is 7,425 Spanish lbs., valued at £448,000. In Brazil the yield has been estimated at 17,000 lbs. yearly, but in the last century the average yearly value was nearly £800,000. From Paraguay a lump of gold was obtained weighing 50 lbs.

"In the north of Africa gold is found throughout the Regency. In Morocco gold is found. The chief gold mines belonging to the Pasha of Egypt are in Kordofan, on the Fazangoro. In Abyssinia a little gold is found in the rivers. In North Africa the yearly produce is reckoned at 5,000 lbs. The interior of Africa has long been known for producing large quantities of gold dust. The whole yearly yield of gold from Africa is perhaps £500,000. Close to the Ashantee country is that of the Bunkatoos, who have rich gold workings in pits. In Natal gold was discovered in 1852, on the Mooi river.

"Of the total yearly yield of gold no accurate estimate can be made. In 1800 the whole yield of gold and silver was estimated at £10,250,000. The following is an estimate of the yield of gold and silver for each of the following years:—

	Gold.	Silver.	Total.
1840.....	£5,000,000	£6,750,000	£11,750,000
1848.....	7,000,000	6,750,000	13,750,000
1850.....	17,500,000	7,500,000	25,000,000
1851.....	22,500,000	7,500,000	30,000,000
1852.....	40,000,000	7,500,000	47,500,000
1853.....	45,000,000	7,500,000	52,500,000

"The whole stock of bullion of gold and silver now in circulation is estimated by various economists at £500,000,000, but complete data are wanting."

THE BANK OF ENGLAND.

One of the singular features attending the influx of gold from California and Australia, is the decline in the amount of coin and bullion held by the Bank of England. It is known that the deposits of gold bullion at the Philadelphia Mint during the year 1852 amounted to \$51,000,000 and upward, of which \$25,000,000 were re-exported from New York to Liverpool, &c., while large sums were transmitted direct from San Francisco to England.

The arrivals of gold, too, from Australia at English ports have been very heavy during the years 1852-3; but in the face of all these additions from various quarters, the amount held by the Bank of England is four millions sterling less now than in July, 1852. The largest sum ever held by the bank at any one period was £22,232,138. This was on the 10th of July last. This sum has gradually been reduced by exports of bullion to the continent, and of coin to Australia, until now the bank holds only £18,563,905. This is more than enough for the actual or prospective wants of the institution, its active circulation being less than twenty-three millions.

It was near the close of the year 1851 that the Bank of England first began to feel the effects of the large influx of gold from California. The additions from this source began in August, 1851, and were regular from week to week (with two exceptions only) until March, 1852. Up to that period the increase amounted to \$6,064,968. The additions were still large until the second week in July, when the enormous sum of £22,232,138 was in their vaults, and the gross circulation amounted to £35,878,765.

The operations of such an institution must of course be profitable, although the rate of interest during the past year was only 2 or 2½ per cent; but even at this low rate the profits must amount to more than one million sterling, or about five millions of dollars.

The public deposits are less now than in 1850, while the private accounts are larger. The public deposits show the following as the highest and lowest for the last three years:—

	Highest am't.	Lowest am't.
1850.....	£11,022,807	£4,627,318
1851.....	10,796,555	3,957,007
1852.....	9,447,516	2,802,361

The private deposits, including those of bankers, railway and joint-stock companies, show an increase during the same period, viz:—

	Highest am't.	Lowest am't.
1850.....	£11,263,012	£8,850,077
1851.....	10,075,856	8,121,431
1852.....	15,464,288	9,371,117

The *Rest* (or reserved profits) on the 7th of July, 1853, amounted to £3,149,769. This item in April, 1852, was £3,624,418, on a capital of £14,553,000, or within a fraction of 25 per cent. The stock has been for some years an eight per cent stock, giving half-yearly dividends of four per cent. The highest rate of the stock in the market last year was 234, (in August, 1852,) and the lowest quotation 215½, (in January, 1852.)

The last quotation we have seen (July 1) was 228½. On the 1st of January, 1852, the rate of interest prevailing was 2½ per cent at the bank. Such, however, was the rapid accumulation of coin and of deposits that the bank reduced the rate, at the close of April, to 2 per cent. The enlarged deposits, circulation, &c., are represented in the annexed comparative statement:—

	1852. January 3.	April 24.
Notes in circulation	£19,284,590	£21,599,845
Public deposits.....	9,447,516	2,998,373
Private deposits.....	9,371,117	14,472,508
Government loans	13,290,972	13,335,779
Other loans.	12,214,222	10,999,619
Gold and silver.....	17,557,541	19,587,670

The large amounts of gold and silver bullion deposited at the bank are shown in the annexed summary:—

GOLD RECEIVED.—OUNCES.

	1850.	1851.	1852.
First quarter.....	326,084	332,759	1,081,959
Second ".....	321,714	513,667	1,319,538
Third ".....	520,631	592,717	1,095,514
Fourth ".....	359,532	2,002,633	1,318,644
Total	1,727,961	3,441,717	4,815,347

SILVER RECEIVED.—OUNCES.

First quarter.....	4,112,491	4,024,614	5,070,962
Second ".....	5,155,377	3,909,671	5,683,720
Third ".....	4,435,043	5,252,508	6,858,005
Fourth ".....	5,188,230	5,052,716	4,033,347
Total received	18,891,142	18,239,510	21,646,036
Paid	19,645,010	18,215,981	21,705,064

Notwithstanding these large additions of silver, the payments were still larger—being in three years 16,345,396 ounces, and the receipts 15,183,976. The amount of silver held by the bank in 1846 was £2,727,000, while in August, 1852, it was only £18,967.

The present condition of the bank is as annexed, under date 7th July, 1853:—

LIABILITIES.

Circulation issued.....	£32,052,080	
Less on hand.....	9,204,260	£22,847,820
Capital.....		14,553,000
Rest (undivided profits)		3,149,789
Public deposits.....		5,615,362
Other deposits		12,504,620
Seven day and other bills.....		1,372,642
Aggregate liabilities		£60,043,233

ASSETS.

Government debt.....	£11,015,100
Government securities.....	16,101,897
Other securities	14,372,331
Gold and silver	18,553,905
Aggregate assets.....	£60,043,233

The securities bearing interest, it would appear, amount to £41,489,328. Assuming 3 per cent as the average rate of interest, the annual income of the bank is shown to be upward of twelve hundred thousand pounds sterling.

Twenty years since the number of clerks and porters employed in the bank premises was 820; printers and engravers, 38; clerks and porters at the branches, 82; making an aggregate of 940, at an annual expense of £211,903.

At the present time the number is largely increased. Nine families constantly reside within the precincts of the bank—the houses of the secretary, chief accountant, and gate-keeper being situated around the court. The whole extent of the bank is surrounded by a parapet wall, on which thirty-four private soldiers and an officer keep watch every night. Beside these guards, there are fourteen men constantly employed, day and night, who are familiar with the labyrinthian mazes of the building, and who have fire engines at command in case of any alarm of fire.

Every department of manual labor connected with the bank, (except the manufacture of paper,) is carried on within its limits. There are three steam cylindrical presses and two hand presses kept for letter-press printing, and a steam-engine of ten-horse power constantly in use. In the bullion department are kept six weighing machines, by means of which the precise weight of all coins is determined.

RATE OF INTEREST AND PENALTY FOR USURY IN THE VARIOUS STATES.

Alabama.—The legal rate of interest is eight per cent. In usurious contracts, the principal, without any interest, may be recovered.

Arkansas.—When no rate is mentioned, it is six per cent. Parties may contract for any rate not exceeding ten per cent. Usurious contracts are void.—*Arks. Digest*, p. 613, *et seq.*

California.—When there is no express contract in writing, fixing a different rate, interest shall be allowed at the rate of ten per cent per annum, for all moneys after they become due on any bond, bill, promissory note, or other instrument of writing, or any judgment recovered before any court in this State, for money lent, for money due on the settlement of accounts, from the day on which the balance is ascertained, and for money received to the use of another.

Parties may agree in writing for the payment of any rate of interest whatever on money due, or to become due, on any contract. Any judgment rendered on such contract shall conform thereto, and shall bear the interest agreed upon by the parties, and which shall be specified in the judgment.

The parties may, in any contract in writing whereby any debt is secured to be paid, agree, that if the interest on such debt is not punctually paid, it shall become a part of the principal, and thereafter bear the same rate of interest as the principal debt.—*Stat. Cal.*

Connecticut.—Six per cent. In usurious contracts, the principal can be recovered without the interest. Persons guilty of taking usury, forfeit the whole of the interest—one-half to him who shall prosecute to effect, one-half to State Treasury.—*Rev. Stat. of 1848, Public Acts of 1849*, p. 47.

Delaware.—Six per cent. Whoever exacts more is liable to forfeit the whole debt—one-half to the State, and one-half to the prosecutor.

Florida.—Eight per cent by agreement; if no rate be specified, then six per cent. The person reserving a higher rate, shall forfeit the entire interest.—*Thompson's Digest*, p. 234.

Georgia.—By the statute of 1845, the legal rate of interest, (which previous to that time had been eight per cent.) was reduced to seven per cent, and the penalty for usury made a forfeiture of the whole interest, legal as well as usurious.—*See Pamphlet Act of 1845*, pp. 35 and 36.

This act took effect 17th December, 1845. All contracts previous to that date, eight per cent. Interest up to the time of payment, although not discharged until subsequently to the above-mentioned act.

Illinois.—Six per cent, where no rate is specified. By contract, parties may go as high as ten per cent. He who reserves a higher rate than ten per cent, shall forfeit three times the amount of the entire interest reserved.

Indiana.—Six per cent. Usurious interest cannot be recovered; and if paid, may be recovered back, at any time within a year after the payment. Any person receiving illegal interest shall, upon conviction, be fined double the excess of interest so taken.—*Revised Laws of Indiana*, pp. 580–583.

Iowa.—When no agreement is made respecting interest, the legal rate is six per cent. The Legislature of 1851 passed an act abolishing all usury laws.

Kentucky.—Six per cent. The agreement for usurious excess only is void.

Louisiana.—Five per cent; but parties may agree on any sum as high as eight per cent. Usurious contracts are void.

Maine.—Six per cent. If more be agreed to be taken, the debt or claim is forfeited. Usurious interest paid may be recovered.

Maryland.—Six per cent. Contracts where more is agreed for or reserved, are not void, except as to the excess.

Massachusetts.—Six per cent. When the defense of usury is established, the defendant shall recover his full costs, and the plaintiff shall forfeit threefold the amount of the interest unlawfully reserved or taken.

The party paying usurious interest may recover threefold the amount of the unlawful interest so paid.—*Supplement of 1846*, p. 388.

Michigan.—Seven per cent, with permission to agree upon any rate not higher than ten per cent for a loan of money. Contracts are not void for usury beyond the usurious excess.

Mississippi.—Eight per cent for a bona fide use of money; six per cent upon other contracts. The penalty for usury is the loss of the entire interest.—*Hutchinson's Miss. Code*, p. 641.

Missouri.—Six per cent. If plea of usury be sustained, the whole interest to go to the use of common schools. A usurer may be presented by an informant, and the whole interest set off to common schools.

New Hampshire.—Six per cent, and if more be taken, the party forfeits three times the amount unlawfully taken.

New Jersey.—Six per cent, and contracts for a higher rate are void. Persons taking a higher rate, forfeit the whole value of the subject matter of the contract—one-half to the State, one-half to the prosecutor.—*Statutes of New Jersey*, p. 765.

New York.—Seven per cent. All contracts whereby a higher rate is reserved, are void. Corporations cannot set up the defense of usury.

North Carolina.—Six per cent. All contracts whereby a greater rate is reserved, are void, and the party exacting it is liable to forfeit double the amount of the debt—one-half to the State, and the other half to the person suing for the same, by action of debt, in any court of record.—*Revised Statutes*, ch. 117.

Ohio.—Six per cent. On written agreement, any rate as high as ten per cent. If more be reserved, the excess is void.

Pennsylvania.—Six per cent, and if a greater rate is attempted to be secured, the party may recover the actual sum loaned, with legal interest thereon, and a *qui tam* action must be instituted within one year from the commission of the offense, when a forfeiture is sought.

When any railroad or canal company has borrowed money and given a bond or other evidence of indebtedness in a larger sum than the amount actually received, such transactions shall not be deemed usurious.

Rhode Island.—Six per cent. In an action brought upon an usurious contract, the plaintiff can recover the principal, with legal interest and costs of suit.

South Carolina.—Seven per cent. The party reserving more, forfeits the entire interest, and must pay the costs.

Tennessee.—Six per cent, and the person exacting more is liable to a fine of not less than the amount usuriously taken.

Texas.—Eight per cent. Parties may agree upon any rate as high as twelve per cent. Any violation of this statute incurs a forfeiture of all the interest.—*Laws of Jan.*, 1840, vol. 4, p. 8.

Vermont.—Six per cent, and interest paid beyond that rate may be recovered back, with costs.—*Rev. Stat. of Vermont*, p. 366.

Virginia.—Six per cent. All usurious contracts are void, with the penalty of forfeiture of twice the amount of the debt.

Wisconsin.—Seven per cent. Parties may agree upon any rate as high as twelve, such agreement to be in writing. Any agreement for more forfeits the whole debt.—*Act of 1821*.

REVENUES COLLECTED AT PORTS IN THE UNITED STATES.

TABLE OF CUSTOM-HOUSE REVENUES COLLECTED AT THE LEADING PORTS OF THE UNITED STATES FOR THE FISCAL YEAR ENDING 30TH JUNE, 1853.

New York	\$38,289,341 58	New Haven.....	\$125,173 40
Boston.....	7,208,048 52	Mobile.....	102,981 47
Philadelphia.....	4,537,046 16	Louisville	48,307 67
Baltimore.....	836,437 99	Oswego.....	128,667 27
New Orleans.....	2,628,421 32	Richmond.....	78,992 98
San Francisco.....	1,794,140 68	Norfolk	31,255 51
Charleston	432,299 19	All other districts.....	1,678,206 04
Portland.....	350,349 22		
Savannah	125,755 86	Amount of customs re-	
St. Louis.....	294,790 78	ceived during the year.	\$58,931,865 52
Cincinnati.....	251,649 90		

FINANCIAL TRANSACTIONS OF THE ROTHSCHILDS.

"In twelve years," says a recent writer, "about five hundred millions of dollars were raised by this house for different powers, by way of loan or subsidy, which were distributed in nearly the following proportions:—For England, two hundred millions; for Austria, fifty millions; for Prussia, forty millions; for France, eighty millions; for Naples, fifty millions; for Russia, twenty-five millions; for several German courts,

four millions; for Brazil, twelve millions; exclusive of various other large sums. The remarkable success of the Rothschilds, setting aside the great opportunities which they have enjoyed from favorable circumstances, may be attributed to their strict adherence to two fundamental maxims. The first, in compliance with the dying injunctions of the founder of the house, is the conducting of all their operations entirely in common. Every proposition of magnitude made to one of them is submitted to the deliberations of all. No project is adopted until thus fully discussed, and it is then executed by united efforts. A second principle is, not to aim at exorbitant profits—to set definite limits to every operation—and, so far as human prudence and foresight can do, to render it independent of accidental influences. In this maxim lies one of the main secrets of their strength."

BRITISH POST-OFFICE RETURNS.

The post-office returns of 1852 have just been issued, and embrace—1st, the number of letters delivered in the United Kingdom; 2d, the revenue; 3d, the cost of management; 4th, the payments to railways; and 5th, the number and amount of money orders. The following table of these particulars, in a condensed form, will show the annual progress that has been made from 1839 (the last year of the old system) to the present time:—

Year.	Estimated number of letters.	Net revenue after paying cost of management.	Cost of management.	Payments to Railways	Money-orders issued.	
				Included in cost of management.		
		£	£	£	Number.	Amount. £.
1839.....	82,470,596	1,633,764	756,999	52,860	188,921	312,124
1840.....	168,768,334	500,789	858,677	52,362	587,797	960,975
1841.....	196,500,191	561,249	938,168	96,190	1,552,845	3,127,507
1842.....	208,434,450	600,641	977,504	78,464	2,111,980	4,337,177
1843.....	220,450,306	640,217	980,650	97,528	2,501,523	5,112,840
1844.....	242,091,684	719,957	985,110	92,493	2,806,803	5,695,395
1845.....	271,410,789	761,983	1,125,594	181,111	3,176,126	6,413,361
1846.....	299,586,762	825,112	1,138,745	110,430	3,515,079	7,071,056
1847.....	322,146,243	984,496	1,196,520	121,859	4,031,185	7,903,177
1848.....	328,830,184	740,429	1,403,250	318,631	4,203,651	8,151,294
1849.....	337,399,199	840,787	1,324,562	230,079	4,248,891	8,152,643
1850.....	347,069,071	803,898	1,460,785	400,964	4,439,713	8,494,498
1851.....	360,647,187	1,118,004	1,304,163	242,848	4,661,025	8,880,420
1852.....	379,501,499	1,090,419	1,843,907	329,963	4,947,825	9,438,277

With regard to the column headed "net revenue," it must be mentioned that the apparent falling off in 1848 and 1850 arose from sums of upwards of £190,000 having been disbursed in each of those years for the conveyance of mails by railway in previous years. Coupled with these accounts we have a statement of the money-order office for 1852. The total cost for the United Kingdom was £70,669; and, as the amount of commission received was £82,332, there was a profit in this department of £11,664. But for an excess of \$1,056 in the expenditure for the Irish offices over the receipts, the surplus would have been £12,720, as the gain for England and Wales was £12,442, and for Scotland £278.

HINTS TO BANK CUSTOMERS.

A correspondent of the *Quincy (Mass.) Patriot* suggests the following rules for the guidance of bank customers:—

I. Keep a good deposit; it will not only assist you in getting discounts, but an unexpected call will not then put you in anxious locomotion to borrow from a friend: so you will save your friend, your credit, and your shins.

II. Offer for discount good business paper rather than accommodation notes.

III. Always apply for discount some little time before you need the money, as such customers are preferred.

IV. Circulate the bills of the bank.

V. Never let a note lie over that has your name upon it.

VI. Bear in mind that a bank is often without funds, and however desirous the directors may be to serve customers, there are times when they are not able to do so.

VII. If a young voyager upon the uncertain sea of trade and traffic wishes bank accommodation, it is often for his interest to give in a true statement of his pecuniary condition; this will insure him all the bank facilities his circumstances will warrant—and a lack of such definite information often causes loans to be withheld from worthy applicants.

RATES OF EXCHANGE AT NEW ORLEANS.

COMPARATIVE RATES OF EXCHANGE AT NEW ORLEANS ON LONDON, PARIS AND NEW YORK, ON THE 1ST OF EACH MONTH FOR THREE YEARS PAST. (SIXTY DAY BILLS.)

	1852-3.			1851-2.			1850-1.		
	London. prem.	Paris. per dol.	N. York. dis.	London. prem.	Paris. per dol.	N. York. dis.	London. prem.	Paris. per dol.	N. York. dis.
Sept... 10	5 15	1½	10½	5 12	2	9½	5 28	1½	
Oct... 9½	5 18	1½	10½	5 15	2½	9½	5 28	1½	
Nov... 8½	5 22	2½	7	5 25	3½	7½	5 32	2½	
Dec... 8½	5 25	2½	9½	5 20	2	8	5 30	1½	
Jan... 8	5 22	2½	9½	5 20	2½	7½	5 28	2½	
Feb... 8½	5 20	2½	8½	5 25	2½	7½	5 30	2½	
March... 9	5 18	1½	9	5 22	2½	7½	5 23	2½	
April... 8½	5 20	1½	9	5 22	1½	10	5 10	½	
May... 9½	5 16	1½	8½	5 25	1½	10	5 12	½	
June... 9½	5 16	1½	9½	5 20	1½	10½	5 10	½	
July... 9½	5 12	1½	10½	5 20	1	10½	5 08	1½	
Aug... 9½	5 08	1½	10	5 18	1½	9½	5 10	1½	

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

PROGRESS OF BRITISH AND COLONIAL SHIP BUILDING.

A return, just printed, by order of the House of Commons, on the motion of Mr. Inghram, of the Shipping and Tonnage of the United Kingdom, furnishes an account of the progress of British and Colonial ship building from the year 1814 to the present time.

One of the most remarkable facts presented by this statement is the tendency shown to increase the size of vessels. In 1814 the average capacity of all the ships constructed in Great Britain during that year was 122 tons, while in 1852 it was 235 tons. Hence, although the aggregate of new tonnage per annum has nearly doubled, the figures having been 86,075 tons in 1815, against 167,491 last year, the number of vessels built each year has remained nearly stationary, the total having been 706 in 1815 and 712 in 1852. In colonial built ships this tendency is observable to a still greater extent, their average capacity having been only 84 tons in 1815, while in 1851 it had risen to 207 tons. At the same time, the advance of the colonies had been such, that notwithstanding the vast increase in the average capacity of their ships, the number constructed likewise shows an extraordinary augmentation. In 1815 they built 131 vessels, with a total capacity of 11,069 tons, and in 1851 the number was 680 vessels, with a capacity of 141,116 tons. In the face of all the apprehensions on account of the repeal of the Navigation Laws, the total tonnage of English vessels annually constructed since that event has shown a steady increase, and last year it was larger than at any former time, with the exception of 1840 and 1841, when an unusual addition was made in consequence of a speculative mania that had prevailed for some time at Sunderland. In the colonies the years 1840, 1841, 1842 and 1848 were the most active ever known; and although after the latter year, during which a great stimulus had been imparted by the demand for freight occasioned by the famine which had just been experienced on this side, a reaction took place, there has subsequently been a steady recovery, until in 1851 the figures again rapidly approached the total from which they had receded. For 1852 the colonial returns are not yet complete, but they will probably show a considerable further advance.

The same document gives an account of the number of vessels belonging to the several ports of the British empire in each year, from 1814 to 1852 inclusive. From this

it appears, that in 1814 the total of vessels was 24,418, with an aggregate capacity of 2,616,965 tons, employing 172,786 men and boys. Last year the total number was 34,402 vessels, with a tonnage of 4,424,392 tons, employing 243,512 men and boys. During the interval of thirty-nine years, therefore, the increase of vessels was equal to 41 per cent, of tonnage to 72 per cent, and of men to 40 per cent—the augmentation of capacity and the improvements in construction causing a comparative economy in the number of persons employed.

A return is likewise given of the number of foreign ships purchased by British owners since the repeal of the Navigation Laws, namely—in 1850, 1851, and 1852. From this it appears that the totals were—57, with a capacity of 10,499 tons, in 1850; 26, with a capacity of 6,049 tons, in 1851; and 28, with a capacity of 6,724 tons, in 1852.

From the same return we also find, that in the year 1852 there were built and registered in the United Kingdom 650 steam and sailing vessels (timber,) equal to a tonnage of 139,451, and 62 vessels (iron) of 28,040 tons. In the same year 2,485 vessels, with a tonnage of 432,545, were sold and transferred in the United Kingdom.

We also find that, in 1852, 733 sailing, and 9 steam vessels, of an aggregate tonnage of 143,784, belonging to the United Kingdom, were wrecked; and 78 sailing, and of 29 steam-vessels, of an aggregate tonnage of 7,212, also belonging to the United Kingdom, were broken up.

THE AMERICAN PROVISION TRADE FOR THE SEASON 1852-3.

[FROM THE LIVERPOOL TIMES.]

In the last annual review of the provision trade at this port, an opinion was expressed that the high prices then current would stimulate the packing of beef to a greater extent than required. Messrs. W. Gardner & Co. report that the result has been in accordance with this view, the import exceeding by over 10,000 tierces that of any former year. The consequence of this great increase has been a dull and unsatisfactory trade to the importer and dealer, prices opening high, but slowly receding to about the present quotations, a further decline being arrested by the satisfactory state of the deliveries, which continued good throughout, as is evidenced by the stock now left on hand being only some 3,000 tierces greater than that of last year, notwithstanding our increased import.

The import of pork this year, (1853,) in round numbers, shows 10,500 barrels from America and Canada, 16,000 barrels from France, and 11,500 barrels from Ireland. The quality of French and Irish maintains its superiority over the American; hence, the latter has ruled at prices considerably under the others, and has been, in a corresponding degree, difficult of sale. That there is no reason why this inferiority should exist is proved by the fact that one brand of Philadelphia pork has, this season, sold at the price brought by the finest French. The contractors for the government navy have obtained a large advance over last year's prices, and Hamburg curers ask 85s. per barrel for winter shipment.

The supply of American bacon is over four-fold that of the year 1851-52, but of this excess only a very small part was originally intended for this market. In the next season there will, probably, be a large business in bacon; the comparatively moderate prices likely to rule for hogs in America have induced packers to make arrangements for curing more extensively for this market, and sales have already been made to some extent for forward shipment. The quality of the hams heretofore received from America, with few exceptions, has been very indifferent.

The supply of lard shows an increase over that of the two previous years, but the fluctuations in price have been much less than in 1851-2, good to fine lard not having touched a lower point than 50s. to 52s., at which figures it remained only for a very short time in Spring, when the heavy part of the New Orleans shipments came to hand.

The receipts of cheese are fifty per cent. over last year's, with the prospect of a continued increase. In June the duty was reduced from 5s. to 2s. 6d. per cwt. without causing any sensible reduction in price. As anticipated at this period last year, prices have ranged high; and, though a slight reaction may fairly be looked for, from the present extreme figures, yet it is evident low rates are not likely. The make of English cheese is fair in quantity, but the prosperous state of the consuming classes has given such an impetus to consumption, that stocks have been reduced to a lower

point than ever previously known; hence, until there is again an accumulation, prices cannot decline. A first-class article, as usual, brings a relatively higher price than an inferior.

Subjoined is a comparative statement of imports, stocks, and prices of beef, pork, bacon, cheese, butter and lard, at the close of the last nine years:

COMPARATIVE IMPORTS FOR THE SEASONS 1846-7, 1847-8, 1848-9, 1849-50, 1850-51, 1851-2, and 1852-3, YEARS ENDING 30TH SEPTEMBER.

	Beef. tcs.	Pork. bbls.	Bacon. cwts.	Hams. cwts.	Lard. tons.	Cheese. boxes.	Butter. firkins.
1847 ...	19,446	85,634	53,523	20,313	4,893	105,284	9,622
1848....	16,428	31,511	119,158	16,296	9,572	106,155	3,430
1849....	26,558	37,152	224,794	22,768	4,892	113,780	8,590
1850....	21,081	20,177	156,347	15,863	10,049	108,696	7,973
1851....	27,519	5,762	66,161	5,714	3,749	67,479	12,124
1852....	24,814	1,629	26,103	94	3,349	3,890	5,029
1853....	41,325	38,164	118,906	10,159	4,756	57,855	5,235

The last year's totals include American, Continental and Irish; hitherto, in this table, American only has been noted.

COMPARATIVE STATEMENT OF STOCKS IN THIS MARKET, YEAR ENDING 30TH SEPTEMBER.

	Beef. tcs.	Pork. bbls.	Bacon. cwts.	Cheese. tons.	Lard. tons.
1849.....	6,275	13,335	28,830	..	1,110
1850.....	5,389	9,321	9,126	..	2,030
1851.....	9,156	150	200
1852.....	6,339	555	1,200	..	120
1853.....	10,652	7,307	16,400	87	580

COMPARATIVE PRICES AT THE CLOSE OF THE SEASON, (END OF SEPTEMBER,) IN EACH YEAR.

Year.	Beef. per tc.	Pork. per bbl.	Bacon. per cwt.	Ham. per cwt.	Lard. per cwt.	Cheese. per cwt.
1843...	75 to 90	38 to 44	.. to to ..	34 to 37	48 to 50
1844....	55 " 65	48 " 50	.. " " ..	35 " 37	46 " 50
1845....	72 " 75	52 " 60	.. " " ..	44 " 46	56 " 63
1846....	70 " 76	53 " 60	38 " 44	.. " ..	38 " 43	52 " 56
1847....	86 " 92 6	60 " 67	32 " 57	30 " 42	54 " 58	52 " 58
1848....	87 " 92	40 " 62	30 " 45	30 " 34	39 " 43	48 " 54
1849....	76 " 85	37 " 66	24 " 38	27 " 42	35 " 37	30 " 42
1850....	78 " 82 6	40 " 55	27 6 " 33	22 " 30	34 6 " 35	25 " 40
1851....	70 " 75	58 " 62	38 " 43	30 " 40	50 " 52	25 " 42
1852....	97 6 " 120	76 " 81	47 " 49	38 " 46	63 " 65	24 " 43
1853....	80 " 100	70 " 75	44 " 50	40 " 48	58 " 60	30 " 58

COMPARATIVE PRICES OF CATTLE AT LIVERPOOL AND OF BACON AND BUTTER IN BELFAST.

Years.	Comparative prices at Liverpool Cattle Market, end of each year.			Comparative prices of butter and bacon in Belfast.		
	Beef. per lb.	Mutton. per lb.	Pigs. per 120 lbs.	Bacon. per cwt.	Butter. per cwt.	
	d. d.	d. d.	s. s.	s. s.	s. s.	
1843.....	4½ to 5	4½ to 5½	31 to 32	35 to 38	68 to 70	
1844.....	4½ " 5½	5 " 5½	45 " 48	34 " 44	74 " 76	
1845.....	5½ " 5½	4½ " 6½	48 " 49 6	42 " 45	82 " 84	
1846.....	5½ " 5½	5½ " 6½	54 " 56	55 " 57	87 " 89	
1847.....	5½ " 5½	5 " 5½	62 " 63	64 " 72	87 " 88	
1848.....	4½ " 5½	5½ " 6½	57 " 60	60 " 64	72 " 80	
1849.....	4½ " 5½	5 " 5½	45 " 46	48 " 50	60 " 66	
1850.....	3 " 4½	5 " 5½	40 " 42	37 " 42	64 " 70	
1851.....	3 " 4½	5 " 5½	42 " 44	44 " 48	78 " 80	
1852.....	4 " 5	5½ " 6	43 " 46	50 " 56	72 " 80	
1853.....	5½ " 6	6 " 7	58 " 58 6	58 " 60	94 " 99	

RATES OF FREIGHT TO LIVERPOOL AND LONDON.

The *Shipping List* publishes the following corrected table of freights from New York to Liverpool and London for the last eight years—that is, from 1846 to 1853:—

	To LIVERPOOL.				To LONDON.			
	Flour.		Grain.		Flour.		Grain.	
	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.
January	3	a 3	3	10 a ..	4	a 4	6	11 a ..
February	2	a	8 a ..	3	6 a
March	2	3 a 2	6	9 a ..	3	a 3	6	..
April	1	9 a	7 a ..	3	a	9 a ..
May	1	9 a 2	.	7 a ..	2	6 a	8 a ..
June	3	a	9 a ..	3	3 a	9 a ..
July	2	6 a	8 a ..	3	a 3	3	9 a ..
August	2	a	8 a ..	2	9 a	9 a ..
September	2	3 a	8 a ..	2	9 a 3	.	9 a ..
October	3	a	9 a ..	4	a	9 a 10
November	3	6 a	12 a ..	4	a 4	6	12 a ..
December	4	9 a 5	.	15 a ..	5	6 a	15 a ..
Average	2s. 8d.		9½d.		3s. 6d.		10½d.	
1847.								
January	5	a 5	3	18 a 19	5	a 5	6	16 a 17
February	7	a	23 a 25	7	a	23 a 25
March	8	a 8	9	27 a 28	8	6 a	24 a 29
April	7	a	22 a 24	7	a 7	6	20 a 24
May	3	a	10 a ..	4	a	12 a 13
June	2	a 3	.	8 a 9	3	a 3	6	10 a 11
July	3	a 3	6	11 a ..	3	a 3	6	11 a ..
August	3	6 a 3	9	10 a ..	3	9 a	10 a 11
September	1	6 a	6 a 7	2	6 a 2	9	7 a 8
October	1	6 a	5 a 6	2	9 a 3	.	..
November	1	6 a	6 a
December	1	6 a	6 a
Average	3s. 9d.		18d.		4s. 9d.		15½d.	
1848.								
January	1	3 a	6 a
February	1	6 a	6 a 7	2	6 a
March	1	a 1	3	4 a 5	2	6 a
April	4 a 5
May
June	4 a 5
July	1	6 a	5 a 6
August	1	a	4 a
September	2	3 a	6 a 7
October	2	6 a	7 a 8	3	a
November	2	3 a 2	6	7 a ..	2	6 a 3	.	..
December	2	a	6 a 7	2	6 a 2	9	..
Average	1s. 8d.		6d.		2s. 8d.		..	
1849.								
January	2	3 a	6 a ..	2	6 a
February	2	a	7 a ..	2	6 a
March	2	a	7 a ..	2	6 a 3	.	..
April	1	9 a	4 a 5	2	a
May	2	3 a	6 a 7	2	a
June	1	9 a	5 a 6	2	a
July	1	6 a	5 a 6	2	a
August	1	3 a 1	6	4 a 5	1	9 a
September	6 a 1	.	3 a ..	1	6 a
October	6 a	3 a
November	1	6 a 2	.	4 a ..	2	a
December	1	6 a 1	9	4 a 5	2	a
Average	1s. 7½d.		5½d.		2s. 1d.		..	

	To LIVERPOOL.				To LONDON.			
	Flour.		Grain.		Flour.		Grain.	
1850.	s. d.	s. d.	d.	d.	s. d.	s. d.	d.	d.
January	1	6 a	4 a	..	1	9 a
February	1	6 a	4 a	5	1	6 a	2	..
March	1	6 a 2	5 a	6	1	6 a
April	1	6 a 2	4 a	..	1	6 a
May	1	a	2 a	3	1	3 a
June	3 a
July	10	a	3 a	..	1	a
August	9	a	3 a	9 a
September	1	9 a	5 a	..	1	6 a 1	9	..
October	1	4 a 1	4 a	5	1	7 a
November	1	3 a 1	4 a	5	1	9 a
December	10	a 12	3 a	..	1	6 a
Average	1s.	3½d.	4d.		1s.	5½d.		
1851.								
January	1	6 a	4 a	..	1	7 a 1	9	..
February	9	a	3 a
March	12	a 12½	4 a
April	4 a	..	1	6 a
May	1	3 a	4 a	..	1	6 a
June	1	3 a	4 a	5	1	9 a
July	1	9 a 2	6 a	..	1	9 a
August	12	a 13	3 a	4	1	9 a
September	10	a 11	3 a	..	1	6 a
October	8	a	3 a	..	1	6 a
November	10	a 12	4 a	..	1	6 a 1	9	..
December	12	a 13	4 a	..	1	9 a 1	10	..
Average	1s.	1½d.	4½d.		1s.	7½d.		
1852.								
January	9	a	3 a	..	1	9 a
February	12	a	3 a	..	1	6 a 1	9	..
March	1	9 a 1	5	6	2	a
April	1	8 a 1	5 a	..	1	9 a 2
May	1	3 a 1	4 a	..	1	6 a	..	5
June	12	a	3 a	4	1	6 a 1	9	..
July	12	a	4 a	..	1	6 a	..	6
August	9	a 10	3 a	4	1	6 a
September	1	3 a 1	5 a	..	1	9 a 2
October	1	a 1	5 a	..	2	3 a 2	6	..
November	2	a	6 a	..	2	6 a 2	9	8
December	3	6 a	6 a	..	3	6 a
Average	1s.	4½d.	4½d.		1s.	11½d.		6½d.
1853.								
January	3	6 a	11 a	..	3	6 a
February	3	a 3	10 a	11	2	3 a
March	2	6 a 2	9 a	..	2	6 a 2	10	8
April	2	9 a 3	6 a	..	2	9 a 3	..	8
May	2	3 a	5 a	6	2	7 a 2	10	..
June	1	9 a	5 a	..	2	a	..	7
July	1	7 a 1	5 a	..	1	10 a 2	2	5
August	2	6 a	7 a	..	2	7 a 3	..	9
September	2	6 a	8 a	..	3	a	..	10
October	2	9 a 3	10 a	..	3	6 a 3	9	12
Average for 10 mos.	2s.	6d.	8d.		2s.	10d.		10½d.

COMMERCE OF NOVA SCOTIA.

It appears from an official statement of the Commerce of Nova Scotia for 1852, that the total value of exports of the province was £970,780, and of imports £1,194,173. Of the exports, £62,676 was to Great Britain, and £257,849 to the United States. Of the imports, £427,532 was from Great Britain, and £847,843 from the United States.

PRICES OF PORK AND BEEF IN NEW YORK.

The following is a table showing the price of pork and beef in the city of New York, for the months of January, April, July, and October, of each year, for fourteen years, including 1852:—

Articles.	Jan.	April.	July.	Oct.
1839—Mess pork.....	\$23 50	\$22 21	\$17 56	\$18 55
Prime pork.....	19 00	18 71	14 08	13 40
Mess beef.....	16 00	15 50	15 50	14 00
Prime beef.....	12 00	11 75	11 50	10 00
1840—Mess pork.....	14 73	15 00	15 25	15 66
Prime pork.....	11 44	12 50	13 86	14 11
Mess beef.....	12 58	13 88	14 25	11 80
Prime beef.....	8 50	9 75	10 00	7 43
1841—Mess pork.....	13 21	12 25	10 97	10 34
Prime pork.....	11 81	11 00	9 06	8 34
Mess beef.....	10 18	9 25	9 69	8 41
Prime beef.....	6 43	6 12	6 25	5 06
1842—Mess pork.....	9 97	9 00	8 83	9 50
Prime pork.....	8 14	7 75	7 50	6 50
Mess beef.....	8 25	8 00	8 00	8 03
Prime beef.....	5 25	4 50	3 17	3 19
1843—Mess Pork.....	9 41	9 12	11 39	11 37
Prime pork.....	6 69	7 47	9 57	10 09
Mess beef.....	6 78	7 75	8 40	4 40
Prime beef.....	3 94	5 58	6 25	8 84
1844—Mess pork.....	10 25	9 37	8 75	8 50
Prime pork.....	8 33	7 00	6 75	7 00
Mess beef.....	7 00	6 25	5 50	5 00
Prime beef.....	4 87	4 25	3 13	3 00
1845—Mess pork.....	9 25	13 75	13 00	13 50
Prime pork.....	7 13	10 75	10 50	10 75
Mess beef.....	7 25	9 00	9 00	8 00
Prime beef.....	4 75	6 31	5 87	4 09
1846—Mess pork.....	13 25	11 00	10 00	10 75
Prime pork.....	10 37	9 75	8 00	9 50
Mess beef.....	8 40	8 25	7 75	7 50
Prime beef.....	5 40	5 50	4 75	6 50
1847—Mess pork.....	10 31	18 00	16 25	14 75
Prime pork.....	8 62	13 00	13 50	11 25
Mess beef.....	9 00	12 50	13 79	8 00
Prime beef.....	7 00	9 00	9 50	7 50
1848—Mess pork.....	11 75	10 13	10 50	12 75
Prime pork.....	7 18	9 00	8 13	10 00
Mess beef.....	8 62	9 13	12 50	12 50
Prime beef.....	5 75	6 00	6 50	6 50
1849—Mess pork.....	13 75	10 75	10 50	10 12
Prime pork.....	11 75	8 37	9 00	8 25
Mess beef.....	11 00	11 50	12 50	11 75
Prime beef.....	7 00	8 25	8 75	9 50
1850—Mess pork.....	10 87	10 00	10 62	11 00
Prime pork.....	9 25	8 25	8 62	8 37
Mess beef.....	10 00	10 00	9 50	10 00
Prime beef.....	6 75	6 75	5 75	4 00
1851—Mess pork.....	12 25	13 50	14 50	15 25
Prime pork.....	8 75	11 25	12 75	12 75
Mess beef.....	10 00	10 50	10 75	9 75
Prime beef.....	5 00	5 50	6 75	5 50
1852—Mess pork.....	14 75	18 00	19 25	10 25
Prime pork.....	13 50	16 75	17 00	15 50
Mess beef.....	10 00	12 00	17 00	12 50
Prime beef.....	5 00	6 75	10 50	5 50

SHIP BUILDING IN MAINE.

Maine stands among the foremost as a ship building state. The following table shows the increase of tonnage of ships built and owned in that State, from the year 1836 to 1852:—

	Ton'ge built.	Ton'ge owned.		Ton'ge built.	Ton'ge owned.
1836.....	27,022	276,859	1845.....	31,105	320,060
1837.....	23,475	250,569	1846.....	49,748	358,128
1838.....	24,322	270,232	1847.....	63,549	384,353
1839.....	27,706	282,282	1848.....	89,974	452,329
1840.....	38,937	308,066	1849.....	82,256	466,489
1841.....	26,874	306,291	1850.....	91,252	501,422
1842.....	38,041	281,330	1851.....	77,399	536,316
1843.....	15,121	285,361	1852.....	110,047	592,806
1844.....	20,200	305,331			

Large quantities of valuable timber lands have been in the market for many years, at the value of \$1 50 per acre. There is no part of the country that offers better prospects than Maine for the capitalists. The new ships built and sold in 1852 were of the more valuable class, averaging probably from \$50 00 to \$60 00 per ton, giving an export trade in ships of from two and a half to three millions of dollars, in the year 1852. The income from freighting ships is a large item in the business of Maine.

The great ship owning States in 1852 were as follows:—

New York.....tons.	1,134,831	Pennsylvania.....tons.	203,171
Massachusetts.....	767,766	Louisiana.....	208,171
Maine.....	592,806	Maryland.....	206,247

The rate per cent of increase from 1836 to 1852 inclusive, in the ownership of vessels by the above-named States, is as follows:—

New York has increased..	166 per cent.	Pennsylvania has increased	138 per cent.
Massachusetts “ ..	56 “	Louisiana “	128 “
Maine “ ..	114 “	Maryland “	99 “

The *Bangor Mercury* furnishes the annexed summary of lumber surveyed at Bangor from July 1st to October 1st, 1853, compared with the amount surveyed during the corresponding period of 1852:—

	1852.	1853,
Green Pine.....feet.	46,065,130	32,280,110
Dry Pine.....	6,450,913	1,903,142
Spruce.....	23,530,429	27,615,920
Hemlock, Hardwood, Bass, etc.....	3,775,777	3,584,880
Total	79,882,279	65,396,352
Amount surveyed from Jan. 1st to Oct. 1st, 1852		137,022,028
For same time in 1853		132,557,043

Every article used in the construction of ships, as well as labor, has advanced largely in value during the last two years. The contract price per ton has, therefore, kept pace with this enhanced value of materials. Iron, foreign and domestic, partakes of this greater value.

COASTING TRADE OF FRANCE.

The official returns of the movement of the coasting trade of France for 1852 have just been published. The general movement, whether from one sea to another, or within the same sea, represents 2,544,785 tons, having been 2,121,520 tons in 1851, and 1,918,030 tons in 1848. The average from 1847 to 1851 inclusively is 2,145,675 tons, which gives 19 per cent for the quinquennial period. The portion of the Atlantic in this movement is 1,835,590 tons, and that of the Mediterranean 709,195 tons, or 72 per cent for the Atlantic and 28 per cent for the Mediterranean. For the 2,544,785 tons thus conveyed, the six principal ports are thus classified:—

Bordeaux.....tons.	272,135	Havre.....tons.	138,536
Marseilles.....	188,717	Nantes.....	111,086
Cette.....	164,577	Rouen.....	109,978

The amount of the six ports coming next in importance varies from 96,128 to 43,314 tons, and the ten next ports are down for 47,721 tons at most, and 20,290 at least. The movement in the leading articles is as follows:—

Wine.....tons.	431,648	Building materials.....tons.	242,172
Timber.....	312,735	Oysters.....	112,000
Corn and flour.....	288,690	Coals.....	98,528
Salt.....	272,749	Brandies.....	76,222

The trips made are 76,051; of which 8,099 are to be assigned to Nantes, 6,796 to Bordeaux, 3,937 to Brest, 3,514 to Marseilles, 2,560 to Havre, and 2,226 to Libourne. These 76,051 vessels represent 2,806,726 tons as their real tonnage, whatever may be their real cargo carried. With respect to tonnage, Marseilles ranks first, and then Bordeaux, Havre, Nantes, Rouen and Cette. The vessels employed in the coasting trade to the thirteen ports of Algeria where a custom-house is established, have made 2,035 trips, representing 60,391 tons. In that amount, Algiers is down for 977 trips, and 34,419 tons; Bone for 419 and 12,289; Meroel-Kebir for 405 and 11,620; Tenez for 238 and 10,900; Bougia for 245 and 8,520; and Stora, 187 and 8,078; the seven other ports had 1,599 trips and 34,947 tons. During the year 1852 the general movement of navigation, foreign, colonies, fisheries, and coasting, presents the following results for the 242 ports of France:—

	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Crews.
Arrival.....	119,410	6,150,842	736,570
In Atlantic ports.....	94,267	4,287,613	563,129
Mediterranean ports.....	25,143	1,863,220	171,441
Departure.....	119,947	6,226,230	634,878
Atlantic ports.....	94,719	4,354,561	463,098
Mediterranean ports.....	25,228	1,871,669	171,780
Total of arrivals and departures.....	239,357	12,377,072	1,371,448

The number of vessels in ballast has been 52,157, of which 24,667 are on arrival, and 27,490 on departure.

COMMERCE WITH MEXICO.

The following table derived from official documents, discloses some interesting facts. It would seem that the largest share of Mexican commerce and intercourse was with the United States, and which, indeed, was greater than that with all other nations. Of the steamers, 145 were from the United States, and of the whole number of vessels 435 were American, while England supplied only 108, France 69, and Spain, (the talked of protectorate,) 60:—

	Tonnage.	Passengers arrived.	Passengers left.
Vera Cruz.....	28,203	1,429	1,346
Tampico.....	7,704	178	126
Matamoras.....
Campeachy.....	6,992	4,975	1
Sisal.....	4,239	43	95
Tobasco.....	3,789	81	21
Hualtulco.....
Acapulco.....	131,330	81,242	28,540
Manzanillo.....	1,402	11
San Blas.....	30,321	4,863	4,920
Mazatlan.....	30,762	5,095	5,000
Allata.....	1,158	81	9
Guayamas.....	4,835	718	35

Among the arrivals were 219 steamers, viz.: 145 at Acapulco, 7 at Vera Cruz, 4 at Tampico, 27 at San Blas, 35 at Mazatlan, and 1 at Guayamas. Of the vessels, 68 belonged to Mexico, 435 to the United States, 108 to England, 69 to France, 60 to Spain, 13 to Hamburg, 24 to Peru, 5 to Belgium, 1 to Portugal, 1 to Nicaragua, 1 to Sweden, 1 to Hanover, 8 to Bremen, 1 to Venezuela. Of the classes of vessels besides steamers there were 55 frigates (vessels of war,) 114 barks, 165 brigs, 63 hermaphrodite brigs, 155 schooners, 68 pilot-boats. Total number of vessels, with the 219 steamers, 837. Total tonnage, 256,692; total passengers arrived, 43,816; total passengers left, 40,153.

LUMBER TRADE OF GEORGIA.

The lumber trade of this State is assuming an increasing importance each year, in consequence of the decrease of white pine in the forests of Maine and other Northern States; and also from the character of the pitch pine becoming better known. Formerly, its uses were partial, but now it is found equally valuable with oak for the beams, planking, and many other parts of a ship. It is used instead of white pine for deck planks, and it is also taking the place of spruce and pine for the beams and sleepers of large brick buildings. Its firmness renders it particularly valuable for the latter purpose.

We find, by reference to our tables, that the exports of Savannah have increased within ten years over five hundred per cent, and we hear no complaints about the decrease of the forests. About one-half of the State is covered with pine, and the growth of all trees is so rapid in this climate, that there need be no fear about exhausting the supply, unless the demand should far exceed that of previous years. Unlike the forests of the North, the same land will produce again and again the same growth. The lands of Maine that produce the white pine, are generally sterile, and after the pines are cut off, the next growth is always different.

The Savannah exports of lumber, to date from September 1, 1852, are 30,530,000 feet, and by the end of the year (Sept. 1) will probably reach 31 millions. The exports from the Altamaha River, at Darien, for the same time, are about 23 millions; and probably the exports from the St. Mary's and Saltilla rivers and other places, will swell the total to near sixty millions of feet. This includes square timber as well as sawed lumber. We think the value at shipping ports would be nearly one million of dollars, an amount equal to the value of the rice crop of the State. Almost the whole value of the lumber consists of the labor required to cut and manufacture it, and transport it to its place of destination; and the distribution of this labor is so varied, that it seems to give a greater amount of good to the working classes than any other business that can be followed.

The Altamaha will afford a greater supply than any river in the whole Southern country; and we find that well-directed efforts have been made to prepare mills near Darien, to manufacture all that may be cut by the hardy lumbermen.

We think about one-half of the exports from Savannah is in square timber. For ten years previous to September 1, 1851, the exports to foreign ports were about equal to those coastwise, with one exception; of the 18,000,000 exported in 1846, over thirteen were to foreign ports, and more than eleven to Great Britain.

About two-thirds of the exports of 1852 were to foreign ports, and of the past year three-fifths are to foreign ports. Great Britain is the best customer, taking usually about half the foreign exports to her ports direct, besides the large amounts that go to the provinces of New Brunswick and Nova Scotia. Within the past year several cargoes have been shipped to Spain for the use of the government docks.

We have no means of referring to the exports of previous years from any place except Savannah, but below we annex a table of the totals for twelve years:—

EXPORTS OF LUMBER AND TIMBER FROM SAVANNAH.

Year ending September 1, 1842.....	8,390,400 feet
“ “ “ 1843.....	7,519,550 “
“ “ “ 1844.....	4,983,251 “
“ “ “ 1845.....	8,270,582 “
“ “ “ 1846.....	18,585,644 “
“ “ “ 1847.....	10,731,888 “
“ “ “ 1848.....	16,449,558 “
“ “ “ 1849.....	15,380,200 “
“ “ “ 1850.....	17,719,100 “
“ “ “ 1851.....	17,764,300 “
“ “ “ 1852.....	25,508,500 “
From Sept. 1, '52, to Aug. 11, 1853.....	30,530,050 “

EXPORT TRADE OF PORTS IN ENGLAND, SCOTLAND, AND IRELAND.

The following table, compiled from official documents, shows the comparative exports of British and Irish produce and manufactures from certain ports of England, Scotland, and Ireland, in 1850 and 1851, distinguishing the ten principal articles of

export, with the amount of Customs duties collected at the same ports in the same years:—

	EXPORTS.		CUSTOMS DUTIES.	
	1850.	1851.	1850.	1851.
London.....	£14,127,527	£14,489,494	£11,095,145	£11,241,281
Liverpool.....	34,891,847	37,918,640	3,356,570	3,502,909
Hull.....	10,366,610	10,126,421	383,519	352,559
Bristol.....	362,039	419,958	1,051,892	1,100,509
Southampton.....	1,859,647	1,916,787	56,065	90,523
Newcastle.....	920,068	929,141	331,960	327,122
The Clyde.....	4,234,604	4,046,814	1,172,631	1,177,064
Dundee.....	91,672	66,890	65,163	63,342
Leith.....	366,880	389,293	531,220	499,204
Aberdeen.....	4,305	9,682	88,244	83,645
Dublin.....	50,354	50,070	874,943	893,383
Cork.....	116,268	109,404	246,462	236,530
Limerick.....	8,437	2,870	160,178	159,431
Belfast.....	56,506	50,183	352,658	369,145

COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION ON THE HUDSON RIVER.

Thirty-two years ago there were but twenty-two sailing-vessels navigating the Hudson, and by them was conducted all the freighting business of the river, as steamboats carried only passengers. In 1848, this number had increased to 615; in 1849, 610; in 1850, 667; in 1851, 683; and in 1852, 569. The great bulk of the freighting business is now done by steamboats and barges.

The number of vessels navigating the river for a few years past, as reported by the harbor-master to the Legislature, was as follows:—

	1848.	1849.	1850.	1851.	1852.
Schooners.....	284	302	339	332	329
Sloops.....	331	308	325	301	240
Barges.....	115	119	119	129	181
Steamers.....	36	40	39	42	39
Propellers.....	5	4	5	8	9
Brigs.....	3
Scows.....	17	12	15	12	9
Total.....	788	785	845	814	807

By the foregoing tables it will be seen that the river tonnage has more than doubled in twelve years, and that for the last five years the increase has been gradual but not large. This is in part attributable to the fact that a large number of canal boats go directly through to New York from the lake ports.

BELFAST (IRELAND) AS A COMMERCIAL PORT.

The importance of Belfast (Ireland) as a commercial port will be best understood by a reference to the following table, compiled by Braithwaite Poole, Esq., of a return of vessels registered at each port in Ireland, with the tonnage entered and cleared in 1851:—

	Vessels.	Tons.	Tonnage entered and cleared.
Belfast.....	462	74,770	1,089,096
Cork.....	422	51,702	681,152
Dublin.....	444	39,353	1,393,822
Limerick.....	101	12,291	154,591
Newry.....	148	9,568	171,263
Waterford.....	190	22,750	359,563
All other ports.....	482	51,000	1,146,886
Total.....	2,249	2,261,434	4,996,378

By this statement it will be seen that the trade of Belfast, with only a population of 110,000, comes within a trifle of Dublin, and nearly equal to one-half of all the other ports in Ireland added together.

IMPORTS OF CERTAIN ARTICLES INTO THE UNITED STATES,

EMBRACING WOOLENS, COTTONS, HEMPEN GOODS, IRON, AND MANUFACTURES OF, SUGAR, HEMP, SALT, AND COAL.

The following statement of the value of certain articles imported during the years ending on the 30th of June, 1844, 1845, 1846, 1848, 1849, 1850, 1851, and 1852, (after deducting the re-exportation;) and the amount of duty which accrued on each during the same periods, respectively, is derived from a statement of N. Sargeant, Esq., Register of the Treasury, January 5, 1853 :—

Articles.	1844.		1845.	
	Value.	Duties.	Value.	Duties.
Woolens	\$9,408,279	\$3,313,495	\$10,504,423	\$3,731,014
Cottons	13,236,830	4,850,731	13,860,729	4,908,272
Hempen Goods	865,427	213,862	801,661	198,642
Iron, and manufactures of..	2,395,760	1,607,113	4,075,142	2,415,003
Sugar	6,897,245	4,597,093	4,049,708	2,555,075
Hemp, unmanufactured...	261,913	101,338	140,372	55,122
Salt	892,112	654,881	887,359	678,069
Coal	203,681	133,845	187,962	130,221
Total.....	34,161,247	15,472,353	34,003,356	14,671,418

Articles.	1846.		1848.	
	Value.	Duties.	Value.	Duties.
Woolens	9,935,925	3,480,797	15,061,102	4,196,007
Cottons	12,857,422	4,865,483	17,205,417	4,166,673
Hempen Goods.....	696,888	138,394	606,900	121,380
Iron, and manufactures of..	3,660,581	1,629,581	7,060,470	2,118,141
Sugar	4,397,239	2,713,866	8,775,223	2,632,567
Hemp, unmanufactured...	180,221	62,282	180,335	54,100
Salt	748,566	509,244	1,027,656	205,531
Coal	336,691	254,149	426,997	128,099
Total.....	32,813,533	13,653,796	50,344,100	13,622,498

Articles.	1849.		1850.	
	Value.	Duties.	Value.	Duties.
Woolens	13,503,202	3,723,768	16,900,916	4,682,457
Cottons	15,183,759	3,769,565	19,681,612	4,896,278
Hempen Goods.....	460,335	92,067	490,077	98,015
Iron, and manufactures of..	9,262,567	2,778,770	10,864,680	3,259,404
Sugar	7,275,780	2,182,784	6,950,716	2,085,215
Hemp, unmanufactured...	478,232	143,470	574,788	172,435
Salt	1,424,529	284,996	1,227,518	245,504
Coal	382,254	114,676	361,855	108,557
Total.....	47,970,658	13,089,956	57,052,157	15,547,865

Articles.	1851.		1852.	
	Value.	Duties.	Value.	Duties.
Woolens	19,239,930	5,331,600	17,348,184	4,769,083
Cottons	21,486,502	5,348,695	18,716,741	4,895,327
Hempen Goods.....	615,239	123,048	343,777	68,755
Iron, and manufactures of..	10,780,312	3,234,094	18,843,569	5,632,484
Sugar	13,478,709	4,043,613	13,977,393	4,193,218
Hemp, unmanufactured...	212,811	63,843	164,211	49,263
Salt	1,025,300	205,060	1,102,101	220,420
Coal	478,095	143,429	405,652	121,695
Total.....	67,816,898	18,493,382	70,901,628	19,950,245

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

POSTAL CONVENTION BETWEEN THE UNITED STATES AND BREMEN.

ADDITIONAL ARTICLES AGREED UPON BETWEEN THE POST-OFFICE DEPARTMENT OF THE UNITED STATES AND THE POST-OFFICE DEPARTMENT OF THE HANSEATIC REPUBLIC OF BREMEN, MODIFYING THE ARRANGEMENT ENTERED INTO BY SAID POST DEPARTMENTS IN 1847 FOR THE RECIPROCAL RECEIPT AND DELIVERY OF MAILS TO BE CONVEYED BY THE UNITED STATES AND BREMEN LINES OF STEAMERS, DIRECT BETWEEN NEW YORK AND BREMENHAVEN.

ARTICLE 1. The post-office of New York shall be the United States office of exchange, and Bremen the office of exchange of that republic, for all mails transmitted under this arrangement.

ART. 2. The international correspondence, conveyed either by United States or by Bremen steamers, as hereinafter stated, between the United States or its territories, and Bremen, will be subject to the following postage charges, viz.:—

Postage on each letter or packet not exceeding half an ounce in weight	10 cents
Above half an ounce, and not over one ounce	20 “
Above one ounce, but not exceeding two ounces	40 “

And the postage will increase in this scale of progression, to wit: Additional 20 cents for each additional ounce, or fraction of an ounce.

Payment in advance shall be optional in either country. It shall not, however, be permitted to pay less than the whole rate; and no account shall be taken of the prepayment of any fraction of that rate.

ART. 3. All the States belonging to the German-Austrian Postal Union, respectively, are to have the advantage of the rate of ten cents, established by the preceding article, (2d,) whenever their postage to and from Bremen, for letters to and from the United States, shall be reduced to the uniform rate of five cents, or less. On all correspondence for or from such of said States as shall not so reduce their rates, the charge between the United States and Bremen, by either of the two lines, will be fifteen cents the single rate.

And optional prepayment, a regular progressive scale, &c., upon the same principles as in article 2d, shall be admitted and observed.

ART. 4. On all letters originating and posted in other countries beyond the United States, and mailed to, and deliverable in Bremen, or originating and posted in countries beyond Bremen, and mailed to, and deliverable in the United States or its territories, the foreign postage, (other than that of Bremen, and other than that of the United States,) is to be added to the postage stated in article 2d or 3d, as the case may be. And the two Post-office Departments are mutually to furnish each other with lists stating the foreign countries, or places in foreign countries, to which the foreign postage, and the amount thereof, must be absolutely prepaid, or must be left unpaid. And until such lists are duly furnished, neither country is to mail to the other any letter from foreign countries beyond it, or for foreign countries beyond the country to which the mail is sent.

ART. 5. Newspapers not weighing more than three ounces each, may be sent by the United States and Bremen steamers when the whole postage of two cents is prepaid thereon at the mailing office. The postage on pamphlets and magazines per ounce, or fraction of an ounce, shall be one cent, prepayment of which shall likewise be required in both countries. Said newspapers, pamphlets, and magazines, are to be subject to the laws and regulations of each country, respectively, in regard to their liability to be rated with letter postage when containing written matter, or for any other cause specified in said laws and regulations. They must be sent in narrow bands, open at the sides or ends.

ART. 6. The postage for which the United States and Bremen post-offices shall reciprocally account to each other upon letters which shall be exchanged between them, shall be established, letter by letter, according to the scales of progression determined by the preceding 2d and 3d articles, as follows, viz.:—

The Bremen office shall pay to the United States office for each unpaid letter, weighing half an ounce or less, originating in the United States and destined for

Bremen, as well as for each letter of like weight prepaid in Bremen and destined for the United States, when conveyed, under article 2d, by United States steamer	9 cents
And when by Bremen steamer	5 "
When conveyed, under article 3d, by United States steamer	14 "
And when by Bremen steamer	5 "

The United States office shall pay to the Bremen office for each unpaid letter, weighing half an ounce or less, originating in Bremen and destined for the United States, as well as for each letter of like weight prepaid in the United States and destined for Bremen, when conveyed, under article 2d, by United States

steamer	1 cent
And when by Bremen steamer	5 cents
When conveyed, under article 3d, by United States steamer	1 cent
And when by Bremen steamer	10 cents

Respecting the postage for newspapers, pamphlets, and magazines received in either country, the whole is to be paid to the United States office when the same are sent by United States steamers, and one-half to the United States and the other half to the Bremen office when sent by Bremen steamers.

It is understood and agreed that, of the portion of the postage for which the United States office is to account to Bremen, as well as of what Bremen may collect, all but one cent a single letter is to go to the benefit of the proprietors of the Bremen line of steamers.

Letter bills and acknowledgments, as well as forms of account, shall be made to conform to these articles.

ART. 7. The accounts between the two Departments shall be closed at the expiration of each quarter of the calendar year, by quarterly statements and accounts prepared by the General Post-office in Washington; and, having been examined, compared, and settled by the Post-office of Bremen, the balance shall be paid, without delay, by that Department which shall be found indebted to the other. If the balance is in favor of Bremen, it shall be paid over by the United States at Bremen; and if in favor of the United States, it shall be paid over by Bremen at Washington, or to the General Post-office at London, to the credit of the United States, as the Postmaster-General of the United States shall direct. Neither office is to charge to the other any commissions upon any postage it may collect. The 20 per cent commission to the Postmaster of Bremen, stipulated in article 6th of the arrangement of 1847, is to cease from and after the date when these articles take effect; and Bremen is to receive no other compensation for the services required by the arrangement of 1847 than as provided in article 6th of the present convention.

ART. 8. The steamers of the two lines shall be required to convey all dead and returned letters, and the official communications of the respective post departments of the United States and Bremen, free of charge.

ART. 9. This arrangement, which supersedes the temporary arrangement of 6th July, 1853, is to go into effect on the 15th of August, 1853, and it is to be continued in force until annulled by mutual consent, or by either post department after the expiration of three months' previous notice to the other; and it may also cease whenever the Bremen steamers cease running.

In witness whereof, we have hereto set our names and affixed the seals of our respective offices, this 4th day of August, one thousand eight hundred fifty-three, at the city of Washington.

JAMES CAMPBELL,
Postmaster-General.
RUDOLPH SCHLEIDEN,
Minister resident of the
Republic of Bremen.

BRAZILIAN CUSTOM HOUSE FORMALITIES.

The ship *Maria*, belonging to Siffken & Ironsides, returned in ballast on her last voyage from Rio; and, on the way, touched at Pernambuco, where one of the crew bought three parrots and a monkey. The vessel was not allowed to leave that port till this cargo was regularly manifested; and we have before us a sheet of foolscap, on which the parrots and monkey are duly entered, and their shipment, in conformity with Brazilian law attested by the formal signature of nine several officials and the appropriate seal.

LAW RELATING TO THE NEW RECEIPT STAMP IN GREAT BRITAIN.

In consequence of some doubts having been entertained on one or two points connected with the British Stamp Act, the following queries were submitted by a firm in the city of London to the Chancellor of the Exchequer:—

1. Does the purchase of goods for money over the counter of a shop or elsewhere, where no bill is desired or given, require a stamped receipt, should the purchase exceed £2?

2. Does a stamp attached to the back of a common banker's check, and written over with the name of the party receiving the money, fulfil the requirements of the new act, as to the use of the stamp?

I have just settled two accounts; one person required the stamp to be attached to the back of the banker's check, drawn in the usual form, and my name written over it; the other required the stamp to be affixed to the bottom of the account, and written over it in the same way.

Mr. R. W. Wilbraham, by direction of the Chancellor of the Exchequer, has given the annexed replies:—

1. That whatever pecuniary transactions have hitherto required a receipt-stamp when amounting to £5, will now require the penny receipt-stamp when amounting to 40s. and upward, the alteration made by the recent act of Parliament consisting in fixing the price of stamps at 1d., and altering the amount of the transactions requiring a stamp from £5 to 40s.

2. That the Chancellor of the Exchequer apprehends that either a check, or any piece of paper with a receipt-stamp attached, suffices for a valid receipt.

A question having also been raised whether a letter by post acknowledging the receipt of bills of exchange, &c., required a stamp, a correspondent of the *Shipping Gazette* refers a contemporary to the fifty-fifth of Geo. III., c. 184, by which "letters by the general post, acknowledging the arrival of any bills of exchange, promissory notes, or other securities for money," are specially exempted from stamp duty, and such exemptions are declared by the new act to be still in force.

 IMPORTANT TO SHIP OWNERS.

ASSORTED CARGOES—DRY GOODS—CHLORIDE OF LIME.

Our attention, says the New Orleans *True Delta*, of October 9, 1853, has been called to the condition of the assorted cargoes of the ships *Espindola* and *Hudson*, recently arrived here from New York, laden with valuable freight, chiefly for the western country. On opening the hatches it was found that all the elegant dry goods, carpetings, silks, &c., were totally destroyed; in fact were completely rotted by what on examination proved to be chlorine gas, set free by the destruction of ten casks of chloride of lime upon the first, and four casks of the same powder upon the second vessel. It is impossible to state the exact amount of the damage, but Captain Clark, one of the port wardens, our informant, estimates it at seventy or eighty thousand dollars.

The solution of the matter will be found, we presume, to be, that the manufacturer of the chloride of lime, (marked for Nashville, Tenn.,) anxious to undersell his honest neighbors, used lime for the purpose of saturation, only partially slaked, by which means much of the chlorine gas would be absorbed, and, of course, less expense incurred. In time, moisture being absorbed, the usual effect upon unslaked lime followed, the bursting of the casks in which the chloride was packed, and the extrication of the gas, which, set free, penetrated the bales and cases of valuable merchandise and ruined them, as may now be seen.

Had the chloride of lime been carefully and faithfully prepared, no such unfortunate results would have occurred, and it is melancholy to reflect upon the injury innocent persons will sustain by the avarice and dishonesty of one individual. The whole value of the chloride of lime that has worked all this ruin would probably not amount to two hundred dollars; now thousands of dollars are lost, and a plentiful crop of litigation, disappointment, and vexation, is to be gathered by the various parties interested.

CONCENTRATED MOLASSES—QUESTION OF DUTIES.

The question between Belcher & Bros. and the Custom House authorities of New Orleans, relative to the import of concentrated molasses and concentrated melado, has been finally decided by the Board of General Appraisers. The decision sustains Messrs. Belcher in all their positions in the controversy, and virtually surrenders the ground taken by the New Orleans Appraisers. The quantity in dispute amounted to ten millions of pounds of concentrated molasses, and five millions of pounds of concentrated melado, the invoice value of which, exclusive of freights, amounted to \$300,000. In making the decision a new rule has been adopted, that of adding an export duty to the invoice charges on concentrated molasses, the same as the export duty on sugar now charged by the Cuban authorities. This charge is to be affixed by the appraiser when not charged in Cuba, as it is deemed that concentrated molasses is unpurged sugar, no matter what it is made from, or how poor its quality. This latter rule will be the subject of further litigation in the courts of the United States.

We annex the official report of the General Appraisers upon the Belcher & Brothers' sugar case referred to above:—

OFFICE OF GENERAL APPRAISERS, NEW YORK, Oct. 19, 1853.

SIR:—The Board of General Appraisers, to whom was submitted the appraisement of several cargoes of concentrated melado, molasses, wet and dry "tips," imported into the port of New Orleans by Messrs. Belcher & Brothers, specified in the inclosed statement, [a list of packages with their marks, &c.] having examined the samples presented, and upon which they were required to fix the true market value at the time and place of exportation, make the following report:—

The Board assumes that both the concentrated melado and concentrated molasses are sugars in a green state, and they are borne out in this view of the case by the invoices themselves—the concentrated molasses, in every instance, being invoiced per *arroba*, as sugar, and not per keg, as molasses.

The casks are also charged as sugar casks.

The concentrated molasses is not susceptible of being gauged, which is another evidence that its proper classification is sugar.

The Board further assume that the samples of the respective lots presented for their examination should always determine the value of the whole invoice.

Very respectfully, your obedient servant,

G. W. POMEROY,
Chairman of Board of General Appraisers.

To Hon. JAMES GUTHRIE, Sec. of the Treasury, Washington, D. C.

ISLE OF MAN TARIFF.

The following appeared in Friday's Gazette:—"After our hearty commendations. By virtue of the power vested in us under the fifth section of the Customs Tariff Act, 16 and 17 Victoria, cap. 106, to omit and re-impose the duties levied on unenumerated articles legally importable into the Isle of Man, these are to authorize you under the said section of the Customs Tariff Act, to allow all articles enumerated in the tariff of the United Kingdom, and not enumerated in the tariff of the Isle of Man, and which under the tariff of the island would be subject to an *ad valorem* duty of fifteen per cent, to be admitted free of duty so long as the order permitting such free importation shall continue unrescinded. For which this shall be your warrant. Whitehall, Treasury Chambers, this 25th day of August. (Signed) ABERDEEN, JOHN SADLER, the Commissioners of Customs. Authority to allow articles unenumerated in the tariff of the Isle of Man, and subject to an *ad valorem* duty of fifteen per cent, under such tariff, to be admitted of duty free."—*Liverpool Times*.

CHANGE IN THE WEIGHT OF A TON OF COAL.

A meeting of the coal dealers was recently held in Philadelphia, to take into consideration the propriety of changing the weight of a ton of coal from 2,240 pounds to 2,000 pounds. Mr. David E. Hance was called to the chair, and John J. Heisler appointed secretary. A document was read, signed by 90 dealers, recommending the change in the weight of a ton. A resolution was adopted, that the uniform weight of

a ton of coal, to be given in the retail sale of coal, shall be 2,000 pounds, on and after the 1st of December. The meeting, which was attended by 23 dealers, was unanimously in favor of the reduction of 240 pounds, and settled the question of the proper weight of a ton of coal.

The dealers are allowed at the mines 2,240 pounds to the ton, with an addition of five per cent for loss.

NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

NOTICES TO MARINERS.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE, WASHINGTON, NOV. 26, 1853.

SIR :—I transmit for publication in the *Merchants' Magazine*—if you should deem such a course advisable—a translated copy of a notice of the Central Marine Board in Trieste, which has been recently received at this Department, through the Austrian Legation in this city.

I am, Sir, respectfully, your obedient servant,

W. L. MARCY.

To FREEMAN HUNT, *Editor of the Merchants' Magazine.*

TRANSLATION.

NOTICE OF THE J. R. CENTRAL MARITIME GOVERNMENT, IMPOSING LIKEWISE UPON FOREIGN VESSELS THE OBLIGATION OF KEEPING A LIGHT BURNING AT THE HEAD OF THE FOREMAST EVERY TIME THEY HAPPEN TO BE IN ANY OF THE AUSTRIAN MARITIME PORTS, HARBORS, OR OTHER ANCHORAGE GROUNDS, DURING THE NIGHT.

In virtue of the 21st paragraph of the Regulations of January 25, A. C. No. 8,025, relative to night signals to be hoisted by Austrian vessels, and also during the prevalence of fogs, all Austrian ships, whether sailing or steam vessels, ships of war as well as merchant vessels, which happen to be at anchor in Austrian ports, unless they lie close to a pier or are moored in some sheltered spot, are obliged to keep a light of a natural color burning at the head of the foremast from sunset to sunrise, so that the same may be easily seen from every point of the horizon. The aforesaid obligation, imposed with the view of preventing all dangers of collision, is now, for the same purpose, and with the modifications above-mentioned, extended, in virtue of the present notice, to all foreign vessels which may happen to be in Austrian ports, roadsteads, or other anchorage grounds on the Austrian coast, during the night; and this in accordance with the provisions that have been made in regard to national vessels, under penalty of a fine of five florins of conventional currency, to be levied upon the respective captains or ship-masters for each and every violation of the aforesaid regulation, which will go in force, as regards foreign vessels, on the 1st of July next.

The respective J. R. authorities at the various maritime ports are charged to see, both directly and by means of their dependent organs, to the faithful observance and execution of the present provision.

The J. R. Lieutenant Marshal and President,
WIMPFEN.

The J. R. Vice-President,
GUTMANSTHAL.

The J. R. Government Counsellor,
WITTMAN.

TRIESTE, March 14, 1853.

CHANGES IN THE LIGHTS ON THE COAST OF NORWAY.

LINDESNÆS AND LISTER LIGHTS.

HYDROGRAPHIC OFFICE, ADMIRALTY, 13th Sept., 1853.

The following is an extract from a notice issued by this office on the 25th of February last:—

1. Lindeanæs Light, $7^{\circ} 3'$ east long., $57^{\circ} 58'$ north lat., 1 coal light to be altered into 1 revolving light with a flash every minute—first order; hight above the level of the sea, 153 feet; visible at the distance of 22 to 24 miles.

2. Lister Light, $6^{\circ} 32' 15''$ east long., $58^{\circ} 5' 30''$ north lat., 1 revolving light with a flash every minute, second order, to be altered into 3 fixed lights, second order: 125 feet above the level of the sea; visible at the distance of 18 to 20 miles.

Her Majesty's Government has now been officially informed that the above-mentioned alterations have been carried into effect, and that those lights will re-appear on the 16th of the present month.

Lindeanæs Light will be visible in all directions. The upper portion of the light-house being constructed of iron and painted red, and the lower being of white stone, the whole building, which is 164 feet high, will be a very conspicuous beacon during the day.

At Lister the three fixed lights are in separate towers, forming an obtuse-angled triangle, with its apex toward the sea. From this tower the two others bear N. b. W. and S. E. $\frac{1}{4}$ E., distant 154 feet, while they bear from each other N. N. W. $\frac{1}{4}$ W. and S. S. E. $\frac{1}{4}$ E., distant 290 feet. The seaman will therefore observe, that on any of those bearings two of the lights will be seen in one.

HVIDINGSO LIGHT.

HYDROGRAPHIC OFFICE, Oct. 18th, 1853.

The following is an extract from a notice issued by this office on the 25th of February last:—

Hvidingso light, E. long. $5^{\circ} 25'$, N. lat. $59^{\circ} 4'$, 1 coal light, to be altered into 1 fixed light, with a flash every fourth minute, second order; 140 feet above the level of the sea, and visible at the distance of 20 to 22 miles.

Her Majesty's Government has now been officially informed that the foregoing arrangement has been carried into effect; and that the light of Hvidingso appeared on the 1st of the present month, as a fixed light, varied by a flash every fourth minute.

The foregoing completes the alterations in the Norwegian lights of which notice was given on the 25th of February.

MEDITERRANEAN LIGHTS.

REVOLVING LIGHT ON CAPE GIORDAN, ISLE GOZO, MALTESE ISLANDS.

HYDROGRAPHIC OFFICE, ADMIRALTY, Oct. 24th, 1853.

Notice is hereby given, that on the 15th of this month a revolving light was established on the northwest part of the island of Gozo, near Cape Giordan, in $36^{\circ} 4'$ north, and $14^{\circ} 10'$ east from Greenwich.

The period of revolution is one minute; the light is elevated 400 feet above the sea, and is visible at the distance of 24 miles when bearing from N. E. $\frac{1}{4}$ E. round by the northward to N. W. by W. $\frac{1}{4}$ W. until about 3 miles from the island; and within that distance it will be visible as far to the northward as N. $\frac{1}{4}$ E. unless concealed by intervening land.

Mr. Mainprize, the master of the *Britannia*, has drawn up the following directions concerning the light:—

Vessels bound to Malta from the westward often sight the island of Gozo on a port bearing when they have been expecting to see it to starboard, especially if the wind be from the northwest: this arises from two causes—first, a southeasterly set of the current; and secondly, from the assumption that the variation of the compass is $1\frac{1}{2}$ points, whereas it is only $14\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$, or $1\frac{1}{2}$ points.

The light kept to the southward of E. S. E. will lead to the northward of the pitch of Cape St. Demetri.

If bound to Valetta, run along the north side of Gozo, which is perfectly bold, at a convenient distance according to the wind and sea till St. Elmo Light comes in sight, (which will first be seen on a S. S. E. $\frac{1}{2}$ E. bearing,) then gradually haul to the southward.

Ball's Bank has six fathoms on it, and is reported to break in bad weather; at other times any vessel may pass over it. Cape Giordan Light kept in sight will give it a wide berth.

The same light kept in sight N. W. by W. will lead well clear of the island of Malta at from four to six miles, according to your distance from the light.

St. Elmo Light south clears the St. George Shoal, and with it on this bearing you may run for the harbor of Valetta. A day-mark will be Zabbar Gate, (the highest building on the Cottonera lines,) in line with the E. angle of Fort St. Elmo S. 4° E.

If hove to off Valetta, waiting for daylight, there will be no danger of the Monsicar Shoal to any class of vessel as long as St. Elmo Light be kept in sight.

MEDITERRANEAN.—LIGHT ON PLANA ISLAND, COAST OF VALENCIA, SPAIN.

HYDROGRAPHIC OFFICE, Oct. 19th, 1853.

Her Majesty's Government has been officially informed that on the 1st day of next January a fixed light, varied by flashes, will be established on Plana Island, on the coast of Valencia.

The lighthouse stands in $38^{\circ} 10' 13''$ north, and $0^{\circ} 26' 22''$ west from Greenwich; it is 621 yards distant from the east point of the island, and 140 from the shore due north of it.

The light is displayed at an elevation of 92 feet above the level of the sea, and may therefore be seen from a vessel at the distance of 15 miles.

KATTEGAT.—LIGHT ON THE KOBBER GROUND.

HYDROGRAPHIC OFFICE, ADMIRALTY, Oct. 26th, 1853.

Her Majesty's Government has been officially informed, that the intention of the Danish Marine Board to place a light-vessel on the Kobber Ground south of Læsø Island has been carried into effect.

In the Notice No. 140 of this office, dated August 29th, it was stated—"She will ride 3 or 4 cables' lengths S. E. b. E. (by compass) from the Nyvager, [New Beacon,] in lat. $57^{\circ} 8' 30''$ N. and long. $11^{\circ} 20' 30''$ E. from Greenwich. She will be schooner rigged, and each side painted with a white cross."

The following further particulars have now been received:—

The vessel will carry three lights, namely, two on her foremast, one above the other; the upper one at an elevation of 50 feet, the lower one 25 feet; and the third on her mainmast 40 feet above the sea, and they will be visible at the distance of 9 miles.

The vessel was moored at her station in four fathoms of water on the 20th of this month.

SANTO DOMINGO LIGHT—WEST INDIES.

HYDROGRAPHIC OFFICE, October 3d, 1853.

Her Majesty's Government has been officially informed that on the 14th of August last, a fixed light was established in the battery of San Jose at the port of Santo Domingo.

The Light Tower is 113 feet above the level of the sea, and the light is 100 feet high, and visible in all directions from seaward, bearing from west, round to nearly east, at the distance of 9 miles.

The cupola of the tower is painted white; it stands in $18^{\circ} 28' 5''$ N. and $69^{\circ} 52' 30''$ West, on the bearing of N. W. by W. by compass, from Point Torrecillo distant 1,423 yards.

Masters of vessels bound to Santo Domingo roads from the eastward, are reminded, that having passed Point Causedo, the light tower being seen over the land to the northward of Point Torrecillo, great caution will be required in rounding this point, to avoid a reef which extends to the southwestward from it, and which does not always show itself by the sea breaking on it.

RAILROAD, CANAL, AND STEAMBOAT STATISTICS.

THE RAILWAYS OF THE UNITED STATES.

PREPARED EXPRESSLY FOR THE MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.

The number of miles of railway now in operation upon the surface of the globe is 34,776, of which 16,180 are in the Eastern Hemisphere, and 18,590 are in the Western; and which are distributed as follows:—

	Miles.		Miles.
In the United States.....	17,317	In Belgium	532
In the British Provinces.....	823	In Russia.....	422
In the Island of Cuba.....	359	In Sweden.....	75
In Panama	81	In Italy.....	170
In South America	60	In Spain	60
In Great Britain	6,976	In Africa.....	25
In Germany	5,840	In India.....	100
In France	2,480		

The longest railway in the world is the New York Central, which, with its branches, is 621 miles in length, and constructed at a cost of \$24,938,340.

The total number of railways completed in the United States is 256; the number of railways partially completed is 56; and the number in course of construction is 84. The total number of miles of railway in operation is 17,317; constructed at a cost of \$489,603,128; and the number of miles in course of construction is 12,526.

The State of Massachusetts has one mile of railway to each seven square miles of its geographical surface. Essex County, in that State, with a geographical surface of 400 square miles, has 145 miles of railway facility, which is a ratio of one mile of railway to each three square miles of geographical surface.

For the names, locality, length, and cost of the railways of the United States, the reader is referred to the table below.

MAINE.

Names of Railways.	When opened throughout.	Miles in length including branches.	Miles in course of construction.	Cost.
Androscoggin	September 15, 1852	86	..	\$1,000,000
Androscoggin & Kennebec	December 1, 1850	55	..	2,064,458
Atlantic & St. Lawrence.....	January 29, 1853	149	..	4,242,823
Bangor & Piscataqua.....	December 18, 1836	12	..	350,000
Buckfield Branch.....	December 5, 1848	10	..	370,000
Calais & Baring.....	December 20, 1851	6	..	100,000
Franklin.....	November 25, 1851	9	..	270,000
Penobscot & Kennebec.....	56
Portland & Kennebec.....	November 1, 1852	69	..	2,514,056
Portland, Saco & Portsmouth.....	November 22, 1842	52	..	1,301,883
York & Cumberland.....	..	19	34	449,425

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

Ashuelot	December 31, 1850	24	..	496,985
Boston, Concord & Montreal.....	May 30, 1853	93	..	2,540,217
Cheshire	November 20, 1849	54	..	2,584,143
Cocheco	October 15, 1849	18	..	500,000
Concord.....	November 10, 1846	35	..	1,385,788
Contoocook Valley.....	December 5, 1850	14	..	219,450
Great Falls.....	October 1, 1843	3	..	60,000
Manchester & Lawrence.....	December 19, 1849	26	..	717,543
Freat Falls & Conway.....	November 30, 1849	13	..	300,000

Names of Railways.	When opened throughout.	Miles in length including branches.	Miles in course of construction.	Cost.
Merrimac & Connecticut River		52	24	\$1,190,994
Northern.....	November 9, 1849	82	..	3,016,634
Portsmouth & Concord.....	August 22, 1852	40	..	1,400,000
Sullivan.....	December 4, 1850	25	..	673,500
White Mountain.....	July 31, 1853	15	..	500,000
Wilton.....	September 29, 1851	18	..	600,000

VERMONT.

Bennington Branch.....		..	6
Connecticut & Passumpsic.....		61	53	1,500,000
Rutland & Burlington.....	December 31, 1851	119	..	3,430,599
Rutland & Washington.....	November 30, 1851	12	..	250,000
Vermont & Canada.....	October 31, 1850	38	..	1,200,000
Vermont Central.....	November 1, 1849	115	..	5,735,596
Vermont Valley.....	December 20, 1851	24	..	1,000,000
Western Vermont.....	June 25, 1852	53	..	1,000,000

MASSACHUSETTS.

Amherst & Belchertown.....		26	12	700,000
Berkshire.....	December 1, 1842	21	..	600,000
Boston & Lowell.....	June 24, 1835	28	..	1,995,249
Boston & Maine.....	July 24, 1843	83	..	4,092,927
Boston & Providence.....	June 11, 1835	53	..	3,546,204
Boston & Worcester.....	July 3, 1835	68	..	4,845,967
Cape Cod Branch.....	November 20, 1853	38	..	633,907
Charles River Branch.....	December 31, 1852	12	..	160,729
Connecticut River.....	November 1, 1847	52	..	1,801,946
Danvers & Georgetown.....	December 31, 1853	14	..	300,000
Dorchester & Milton.....	May 1, 1847	3	..	124,718
Eastern.....	November 9, 1840	75	..	3,621,874
Essex.....	March 1, 1849	21	..	609,007
Fall River.....	June 9, 1845	42	..	1,050,000
Fitchburg.....	March 5, 1845	69	..	3,633,674
Fitchburg & Worcester.....	February 11, 1850	14	..	312,219
Grand Junction.....		7	..	1,282,073
Harvard Branch.....	December 31, 1849	1	..	25,701
Lexington & West Cambridge....	September 1, 1846	7	..	237,328
Medway Branch.....	December 31, 1852	4	..	37,088
Lowell & Lawrence.....	July 1, 1848	12	..	346,063
Nashua & Lowell.....	October 8, 1838	15	..	651,215
New Bedford & Taunton.....	July 2, 1840	21	..	520,476
Newburyport.....	December 31, 1852	15	..	255,614
Norfolk County.....	April 23, 1849	26	..	1,245,928
Old Colony.....	November 10, 1845	45	..	2,293,535
Peterboro' & Shirley.....	February 15, 1848	14	..	263,540
Pittsfield & North Adams.....	October 8, 1846	18	..	443,678
Providence & Worcester.....	October 20, 1847	43	..	1,781,498
Salem & Lowell.....	August 5, 1850	17	..	362,672
Saugus Branch.....	February 1, 1853	9	..	128,857
Southbridge & Blackstone.....	September 30, 1853	27	..	500,000
South Reading Branch.....	September 1, 1850	8	..	236,227
South Shore.....	January 1, 1849	11	..	428,831
Stockbridge & Pittsfield.....	January 1, 1850	22	..	448,700
Stoney Brook.....	July 1, 1848	13	..	265,813
Taunton Branch.....	August 8, 1834	12	..	307,136
Stoughton Branch.....	April 7, 1845	4	..	93,433
Troy & Greenfield.....		31	36	700,000
Vermont & Massachusetts... ..	February 20, 1849	77	..	3,461,629
Western.....	December 21, 1841	156	..	9,953,759
West Stockbridge.....	November 30, 1838	8	..	41,516
Worcester & Nashua.....	December 15, 1848	46	..	1,321,946

CONNECTICUT.

Names of Railways.	When opened throughout.	Miles in length including branches.	Miles in course of construction.	Cost.
Air line.....		22	73	\$500,000
Collinsville Branch.....	December 31, 1851	11	..	275,000
Danbury.....	May 26, 1852	22	..	500,000
Hartford, Providence, & Fishkill.....	October 31, 1850	51	..	1,313,819
Housatonic.....	February 12, 1840	110	..	2,500,000
Housatonic Branch.....	December 31, 1850	11	..	275,000
Middletown Branch.....	November 30, 1851	10	..	250,000
Naugatuc.....	October 31, 1849	62	..	1,368,152
New Haven & Hartford.....	December 26, 1841	62	..	1,650,000
New Haven & New London.....	June 20, 1852	55	..	1,700,000
New Haven & New York.....	November 24, 1849	76	..	4,978,487
New Haven & Northampton.....	October 23, 1850	45	..	1,500,000
New London & Stonington.....		..	10
N. London, Willimantic & Palmer.....	September 1, 1850	66	..	1,450,411
Norwich & Worcester.....	November 30, 1840	66	..	2,596,488

RHODE ISLAND.

Providence & Stonington.....	November 10, 1837	50	..	2,614,484
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NEW YORK.

Albany & Susquehanna.....		..	140
Attica & Allegany.....		30	44	800,000
Buffalo, Corning & New York.....		45	88	900,000
Buffalo & State Line.....	February 23, 1852	69	..	1,920,270
Canandaigua & Jefferson.....	September 15, 1851	47	..	987,627
Canandaigua & Niagara Falls.....	August 1, 1853	92	..	2,000,000
Cayuga & Susquehanna.....		35	..	1,070,786
Central.....	June 10, 1853	621	..	24,933,340
Genesee Valley.....	December 31, 1853	49	..	1,000,000
Hudson & Berkshire.....	November 15, 1844	31	..	824,331
Hudson River.....	October 1, 1851	144	..	10,527,654
Lake Ontario, Auburn & Ithaca.....		..	73
Lebanon Springs.....		..	22
Lewiston.....	November 10, 1840	10	..	120,000
Long Island.....	August 5, 1844	95	..	2,446,392
New York & Erie.....	July 15, 1851	464	..	27,551,207
New York & Harlem.....	January 19, 1852	131	..	6,102,981
Northern, (Albany).....	November 5, 1853	32	..	1,000,000
Northern, (Ogdensburg).....	October 1, 1850	118	..	4,933,030
Oswego & Syracuse.....	December 31, 1855	35	..	607,804
Potsdam & Watertown.....		..	83
Rensselaer & Saratoga.....	November 25, 1836	25	..	774,495
Rochester & Lake Ontario.....	May 18, 1853	7	..	200,000
Rome, Watertown, St. Vincent.....	August 19, 1851	96	..	1,693,711
Sacketts Harbor & Ellisburg.....	December 31, 1852	18	..	201,320
Saratoga & Schenectady.....	November 30, 1832	22	..	471,568
Saratoga & Washington.....	December 24, 1845	41	..	1,832,946
Sodus Bay & Southern.....		..	34
Syracuse & Binghamton.....		..	80
Troy & Bennington.....	August 16, 1852	50	..	1,000,000
Troy & Greenbush.....	June 13, 1845	6	..	294,795
Troy & Rutland.....	June 28, 1852	32	..	329,577

NEW JERSEY.

Belvidere and Delaware.....		34	29	700,000
Burlington and Mount Holly.....	December 31, 1850	6	..	75,000
Camden and Absecon.....	December 31, 1853	60	..	1,500,000
Camden and Amboy.....	July 6, 1831	90	..	3,245,721

Names of Railways.	When opened throughout.	Miles in length, including branches.	Miles in course of construction.	Cost.
Camden and Amboy Branch.....	November 30, 1840	26	..	\$520,000
Camden and Woodbury.....	October 31, 1847	9	..	100,000
Morris and Essex.....	December 26, 1851	44	..	980,918
New Jersey.....	June 20, 1836	31	..	680,000
New Jersey Central.....	July 2, 1852	75	..	2,764,866
Paterson.....	November 26, 1834	17	..	500,000
Ramapo.....	October 24, 1850	16	..	470,000

PENNSYLVANIA.

Alleghany and Portage.....	November 30, 1833	28	..	700,000
Beaver Meadow.....	October 31, 1837	26	..	150,000
Beaver Meadow and Branches.....	December 20, 1837	12	..	100,000
Blairsville Branch.....	November 25, 1851	3	..	60,000
Carbondale and Honesdale.....	October 24, 1837	21	..	600,000
Catawissa, Williamsport & Elmira.....	October 26, 1853	42	..	1,000,000
Chesnut Hill and Doylestown.....	December 16, 1852	15	..	300,000
Chester Valley.....	10	13	1,500,000
Cobb's Gap.....	45
Columbia.....	December 31, 1846	38	..	800,000
Corning and Blossburg.....	December 15, 1840	40	..	600,000
Cumberland Valley.....	November 14, 1840	77	..	1,205,822
Dansville and Pottsville.....	October 16, 1832	44	..	800,000
Dansville and Shamokin.....	20
Erie and Ashtabula.....	November 30, 1852	40	..	1,200,000
Franklin.....	October 10, 1840	22	..	500,000
Germantown Branch.....	December 5, 1840	6	..	200,000
Harrisburg and Lancaster.....	December 23, 1835	25	..	1,702,523
Hazleton and Lehigh.....	November 6, 1840	10	..	80,000
Hempfield.....	82
Holidaysburgh Branch.....	6
Iron.....	October 31, 1852	25	..	500,000
Lackawanna and Western.....	October 13, 1851	58	..	1,000,000
Lebanon Valley.....	56
Lehigh and Susquehanna.....	December 1, 1840	20	..	1,250,000
Little Schuylkill.....	November 2, 1831	20	..	325,500
Little Schuylkill and Susquehanna.....	28	86	600,000
Lykens Valley.....	December 21, 1837	16	..	170,000
Mahonoy and Wisconsin.....	November 30, 1850	17	..	180,000
Maunch Chunk and Branches.....	June 17, 1827	25	..	300,000
Mill Creek.....	October 31, 1832	9	..	180,000
Mine Hill.....	December 26, 1836	12	..	896,117
Mount Carbon.....	November 24, 1830	7	..	70,000
Nesquehoning.....	December 19, 1840	5	..	50,000
North East.....	January 1, 1852	23	..	500,000
Norristown, Doylestown and New Hope.....	28
North Pennsylvania.....	83
Pennsylvania.....	November 13, 1852	228	..	7,978,000
Philadelphia City.....	November 21, 1840	6	..	300,000
Philadelphia and Columbia.....	September 20, 1832	82	..	4,204,969
Philadelphia, Germantown & Norristown.....	November 30, 1832	17	..	550,000
Philadelphia and Reading.....	December 31, 1840	92	..	16,649,515
Philadelphia and Sunbury.....	August 25, 1853	50	..	1,500,000
Philadelphia and Trenton.....	October 23, 1833	30	..	500,000
Philadelphia and West Chester.....	December 26, 1850	21	..	600,000
Philadelphia, Wilmington and Baltimore.....	July 10, 1837	98	..	6,421,229
Pine Grove.....	November 10, 1832	4	..	40,000

Names of Railways.	When opened throughout.	Miles in length, including branches.	Miles in course of construction.	Cost.
Pittsburg and Connellsville	150
Pittsburg and Erie	141
Pittsburg and Steubenville	35
Pottsville and Sunbury	40
Room Run	October 31, 1836	6	..	\$40,000
Schuylkill	December 31, 1832	13	..	200,000
Schuylkill Valley and Branches	November 30, 1832	25	..	300,000
Strasburg	35
Sunbury and Erie	35
Sunbury and Shamokin	20
Susquehanna	52
Trenton Branch	December 24, 1840	6	..	180,000
Trevorton and Mahanoy	November 23, 1850	15	..	160,000
Valley	20
West Chester	October 22, 1850	9	..	250,000
Williamsport and Elmira		25	35	700,000
York and Wrightsville	December 19, 1840	13	..	400,000

DELAWARE.

Delaware	43
Newcastle and Frenchtown	September 20, 1832	16	..	600,000

MARYLAND.

Annapolis and Elkridge	December 31, 1846	21	..	400,000
Baltimore and Ohio		491	30	22,254,338
Baltimore and Susquehanna	November 30, 1846	85	..	3,370,282

VIRGINIA.

Alexandria and Orange		70	105	1,400,000
Appomatox	December 31, 1850	9	..	200,000
Central		105	90	1,600,000
Chesterfield	July 6, 1832	12	..	150,000
Clover Hill	August 15, 1852	15	..	300,000
Covington and Ohio	228
Cumberland Gap	115
Fredricksburg and Gordonsville	38
Loudon and Hampshire	180
Manapas Gap		39	91	800,000
New River	77
Norfolk and Petersburg	80
Greenville and Roanoke	November 30, 1833	22	..	284,438
Petersburg and Weldon	October 31, 1833	60	..	946,721
Richmond and Petersburg	November 24, 1840	21	..	875,405
Richmond, Fredricksburg and Potomac	December 26, 1840	76	..	1,509,271
Richmond and York River	42
Southside		62	60	1,300,000
Richmond and Danville		73	74	1,500,000
Seaboard and Roanoke	January 1, 1853	77	..	1,454,171
Winchester and Potomac	November 24, 1836	32	..	400,415

NORTH CAROLINA.

Gaston and Raleigh	December 31, 1840	87	..	1,606,000
North Carolina	223
Wilmington and Weldon	November 30, 1850	162	..	2,500,000

SOUTH CAROLINA.

Names of Railways.	When opened throughout.	Miles in length, including branches.	Miles in course of construction.	Cost.
Charlotte and South Carolina.....	July 15, 1852	112	..	\$988,415
Cheraw and Darlington.....		10	85	200,000
Greenville and Columbia.....		103	61	2,000,000
King's Mountain.....	October 31, 1851	25	..	500,000
Laurens.....		8	23	160,000
North East.....		..	108
South Carolina.....	October 2, 1853	241	..	5,943,678
Spartanburg and Union.....		..	66
Wilmington and Manchester.....		76	86	1,500,000

GEORGIA.

Atlanta and La Grange.....	October 1, 1853	87	..	2,000,000
Athens Branch.....	December 31, 1840	39	..	800,000
Brunswick and Florida.....		..	130
Burke.....		15	38	300,000
Central.....	November 30, 1843	190	..	3,555,872
Eatonton.....		..	22
Georgia.....	October 13, 1843	192	..	3,100,000
Macon and Western.....	December 26, 1844	103	..	1,279,000
Milledgeville.....	November 24, 1851	18	..	350,000
Muscogee.....		25	46	500,000
Rome.....	October 23, 1850	18	..	200,000
Savannah and Albany.....		..	191
South Western.....	December 20, 1851	57	..	1,000,000
Western and Atlantic.....	November 19, 1850	140	..	3,000,000
Wilkes.....		..	18

FLORIDA.

St. Joseph's.....	December 31, 1847	28	..	180,000
Tallahassee and St. Marks.....	November 30, 1846	26	..	120,000

ALABAMA.

Alabama and Mississippi.....		..	90
Girard and Mobile.....		22	198	400,000
Memphis and Charleston.....		64	121	1,300,000
Montgomery and West Point.....	December 31, 1851	89	..	1,286,208
Tennessee and Selma.....		..	250
Tuscumbia and Decatur.....	November 30, 1832	46	..	650,000

MISSISSIPPI.

Mississippi, Natchez and Malcolm.....		..	30
Mobile and Ohio.....		88	406	2,000,000
Raymond.....	December 31, 1851	7	..	120,000
Vicksburg, Jackson and Brandon.....	November 30, 1846	60	..	950,000

LOUISIANA.

Carrollton.....	December 31, 1831	6	..	60,000
Clinton and Port Hudson.....	November 30, 1850	24	..	200,000
Lake Ponchartrain.....	April 16, 1851	6	..	60,000
Mexican Gulf.....	October 31, 1850	27	..	175,000
New Orleans, Opelousas and Great Western.....		..	119
St. Francisville and Woodville.....	April 15, 1831	28	..	463,000
West Feliciana.....	December 26, 1848	26	..	168,000

TEXAS.

Harrisburg and Brazos.....		..	72
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TENNESSEE.

Names of Railways.	When opened throughout.	Miles in length, including branches.	Miles in course of construction.	Cost.
Alabama and Tennessee.....		55	112	\$1,200,000
Atlanta and LaGrange.....	December 31, 1852	40	...	800,000
Chatanooga and Nashville.....	December 1, 1853	162	...	3,000,000
Cleveland and Chatanooga.....		...	30
East Tennessee and Georgia.....		81	29	1,800,000
East Tennessee and Virginia.....		50	154	1,000,000
Nashville and Mississippi.....		...	150
Memphis and LaGrange.....		...	50
Racburn Gap.....		...	170

KENTUCKY.

Covington and Lexington.....	December 31, 1853	96	...	2,000,000
Lexington and Frankfort.....	December 31, 1840	28	...	551,226
Lexington and Big Sandy.....	
Louisville and Chatanooga.....		...	180
Louisville and Danville.....		...	66
Louisville and Frankfort.....	November 30, 1851	65	...	1,358,764
Louisville and Newport.....		...	73
Maysville and Danville.....		...	110
Maysville and Lexington.....		44	23	1,000,000

OHIO.

Akron Branch.....		14	19	300,000
Belfontaine and Indiana.....	June 30, 1853	118	...	2,000,000
Central.....		59	82	1,200,000
Cincinnati, Hamilton, and Dayton..	September 30, 1851	60	...	2,145,505
Cincinnati, Hillsboro' & Parkersburgh.....		37	163	800,000
Cincinnati and Marietta.....		75	65	1,500,000
Cincinnati and Xenia.....		...	50
Cincinnati, Zanesville, & Cleveland....		...	300
Cleveland, Coshocton, & Zanesville.....		...	130
Cleveland and Erie.....	November 23, 1852	95	...	2,000,000
Cleveland and Mahoning.....		...	103
Cleveland, Norwalk, and Toledo..	January 25, 1853	88	...	1,517,714
Cleveland and Pittsburg.....	September 30, 1853	99	...	2,000,000
Columbus and Cleveland.....	October 25, 1853	135	...	3,000,000
Columbus and Lake Erie.....	September 25, 1853	61	...	1,200,000
Columbus, Piqua, and Indiana.....	November 30, 1853	102	...	2,000,000
Columbus and Springfield.....	October 31, 1852	65	...	1,300,000
Columbus and Newark.....	September 30, 1852	36	...	720,000
Columbus and Xenia.....	February 28, 1850	55	...	1,194,074
Dayton and Miami.....	November 30, 1852	46	...	1,000,000
Dayton and Michigan.....		5	135	100,000
Dayton and Richmond.....	December 31, 1852	52	...	1,000,000
Dayton and Springfield.....	December 26, 1851	24	...	500,000
Dayton and Western.....	October 31, 1853	20	...	400,000
Dayton and Xenia.....		15	15	300,000
Eaton and Piqua.....		...	35
Findlay.....	November 24, 1851	16	...	200,000
Greenfield and Miami.....	October 23, 1852	37	...	740,000
Hamilton, Eaton, and Richmond..	May 31, 1853	115	...	713,103
Ironton.....	November 16, 1852	20	...	400,000
Junction.....		12	54	200,000
Little Miami.....	October 15, 1847	83	...	1,508,402
Mad River and Lake Erie.....	December 10, 1847	156	...	1,754,260
Mansfield and Newark.....	November 11, 1851	60	...	1,200,000
Mansfield and Sandusky.....	December 31, 1853	56	...	1,800,000
Newark and Zanesville.....		...	30
Ohio and Indiana.....	December 31, 1853	132	...	2,700,000

Names of Railways.	When opened throughout.	Miles in length, including branches.	Miles in course of construction.	Cost.
Ohio and Pennsylvania.....	April 9, 1853	187	...	\$3,000,000
Pittsburg and Steubenville	42
Scioto and Hocking Valley		20	105	400,000
Springfield, Delaware, and Mount Vernon		60	55	1,200,000
Springfield and Mansfield.....		...	72
Springfield and Xenia	November 19, 1852	20	...	400,000
Steubenville and Indiana	December 31, 1853	112	...	2,500,000
Troy and Michigan		20	50	400,000
Western	78
MICHIGAN.				
Central	December 31, 1851	228	...	8,614,197
Detroit and Pontiac	November 30, 1840	25	...	300,000
Erie and Kalamazoo	December 31, 1840	33	...	350,000
Southern, (including Northern Indiana)	September 30, 1851	315	...	4,578,082
INDIANA.				
Cincinnati, Logansport, & Chicago.....		174	105	3,500,000
Central	September 30, 1853	72	...	1,500,000
Evansville and Terre Haute		27	84	540,000
Fort Wayne and Chicago	159
Fort Wayne and Muncie	60
Indianapolis and Belfontaine	July 31, 1853	83	...	1,800,000
Indianapolis and Lafayette	November 30, 1852	61	...	1,000,000
Indianapolis and Laurenceburg.....		63	28	1,200,000
Indianapolis and Peru	December 31, 1853	73	...	1,500,000
Indianapolis and Terre Haute	February 16, 1852	72	...	1,500,000
Jeffersonville and Columbus.....	October 9, 1852	66	...	1,300,000
Junction	38
Martinsville and Franklin.....	December 24, 1852	25	...	500,000
New Albany and Salem.....		260	25	5,000,000
Ohio and Mississippi.....		87	249	1,800,000
Shelbyville and Edinburgh.....	October 24, 1850	16	...	320,000
Shelbyville and Knightstown	December 20, 1851	27	...	540,000
Shelbyville and Rushville.....	November 19, 1851	20	...	400,000
ILLINOIS.				
Alton and Chicago		30	270	600,000
Alton and Jacksonville	65
Alton and New Albany.....		...	175
Alton and Springfield	September 9, 1852	78	...	1,600,000
Alton and Terre Haute	170
Aurora Branch.....		36	19	720,000
Belleville and Illinoisstown.....		...	14
Central		233	466	5,000,000
Chicago and Aurora.....	October 15, 1853	160	...	3,000,000
Chicago and Mississippi.....	October 20, 1853	128	...	2,500,000
Chicago and Galena Union.....	August 31, 1853	175	...	3,500,000
Chicago and St. Charles	160
Illinois and Wisconsin.....		24	31	500,000
Lake Shore	95
Northern Cross—Eastern Extension	30
Northern Cross—Western Extension		15	21	300,000
O'Fallon and Coal Bluff.....	December 31, 1840	7	...	140,000
Peoria, Knoxville, and Burlington	110
Peoria and Ocquaka		60	30	1,200,000
Peoria and Warsaw.....		...	120
Rock Island and Chicago	January 1, 1854	192	...	4,000,000

Names of Railways.	When opened throughout.	Miles in length, including branches.	Miles in course of construction.	Cost.
St. Charles Branch.....	November 26, 1850	8	...	\$160,000
Sangamon and Morgan.....		56	89	1,000,000
Springfield and Bloomington.....	October 31, 1858	60	...	1,200,000
Warsaw, Rock Island, and Byron.....		...	130

MISSOURI.

Hannibal and St. Joseph.....	...	210
Iron Mountain.....	...	75
North Missouri.....	...	228
Pacific (Kansas).....	50	135	1,000,000
Pacific (South West).....	...	280
St. Louis and St. Charles	35

IOWA.

Burlington and Missouri.....	...	300
Dubuque and Keokuck.....	...	180

WISCONSIN.

Milwaukee and Mississippi.....	92	100	2,000,000
Milwaukee and Watertown.....	...	50
Rock River Valley Union.....	January 1, 1854	86	1,800,000
Kenosha and Beloit.....	...	50

RECAPITULATION.

States.	No. of railways.	No. of miles in operation.	No. of miles in course of construction.	Cost.
Maine.....	11	417	90	\$12,662,645
New Hampshire.....	15	512	24	16,185,254
Vermont.....	8	422	59	14,116,195
Massachusetts.....	43	1,283	48	55,602,687
Rhode Island.....	1	50	...	2,614,484
Connecticut.....	15	669	83	20,857,357
New York.....	32	2,345	564	94,523,785
New Jersey.....	11	408	29	11,536,505
Pennsylvania.....	64	1,464	987	58,494,675
Delaware.....	2	16	43	600,000
Maryland.....	3	597	30	26,024,620
Virginia.....	21	673	1,180	12,720,421
North Carolina.....	3	249	223	4,106,000
South Carolina.....	9	575	374	11,287,098
Georgia.....	15	884	445	16,084,872
Florida.....	2	54	...	250,000
Alabama.....	6	221	659	3,636,208
Mississippi.....	4	155	436	3,070,000
Louisiana.....	7	117	119	1,131,000
Texas.....	1	...	72
Tennessee.....	9	328	695	7,800,000
Kentucky.....	9	233	452	4,909,990
Ohio.....	46	2,367	1,578	44,927,068
Michigan.....	4	601	...	13,842,279
Indiana.....	13	1,127	748	22,400,000
Illinois.....	25	1,262	1,945	25,420,000
Missouri.....	6	50	983	1,000,000
Iowa.....	2	...	490
Wisconsin.....	4	178	200	3,800,000
Total.....	396	17,317	12,526	\$489,603,128

STATISTICS OF POPULATION, &c.

THE ENGLISH CENSUS.

It appears from the English Census of 1851 that the total number of persons forming the people of Great Britain on the night the Census was taken—the 31st of March, 1851—was 21,129,967. After stating this chief fact, the census takers say, with great truth:—

It is difficult to form any just conception of these large numbers, for men are rarely seen in large masses, and when seen their numbers are seldom known. It is only by collecting, as in other cases of measuring, the units into masses, these masses into other masses, and thus ascending progressively to a unit comprehending all others, that the mind attains any adequate notion of such a multitude as a million of men. Thus, from a file of ten persons, which the eye takes in at one view, the mind readily conceives ten such groups, or a hundred, and again ascending to ten hundred or a thousand; to ten thousand or a myriad; to ten myriads or a hundred thousand; and to ten hundred thousand or a million—arrives at the conception of the twenty-one millions of people which Great Britain contained within its shores on the night of March 3, 1851. Another way of arriving at this conception is, by considering the numbers in relation to space; as 4,840 persons might stand without crowding on the 4,840 square yards in an acre, 3,097,600 persons would cover a square mile, (equal to 640 acres;) and the twenty-one millions of people in Great Britain, allowing a square yard to each person, would therefore cover seven square miles.

Doubting whether this statement conveys a complete idea of the number of people in Great Britain, the Report attempts another mode of illustration:—

The building of the Great Exhibition in London inclosed 18 acres, and 50,000 or 60,000 persons often entered it daily; on the 9th of October 93,224 persons filled its floor and galleries, and could almost be surveyed by the eye at one time. Of 100,000 persons a general notion can be formed by all those who witnessed this spectacle at the Crystal Palace; it is a greater number than ever were, at one time, in a building covering eighteen acres, but somewhat less than the greatest number (109,915) that ever entered in one day, October 7th. The population, then, of Great Britain, including men, women, and children, exceeds 211 hundred thousands; and at the rate of a hundred thousand a day, could have passed through the building in 211 days; the English—as they are 169 thousand—in 169 days; the Welsh, 10 hundred thousand, in 10 days; the Scotch, 29 hundred thousand, in 29 days; the 143,126 islanders in the British Seas, in less than a day and a half; the 162,490 soldiers and seamen absent from the country when the census was taken, in less than two days. The population of Great Britain in 1801 amounted in round numbers to 109 hundred thousands; and 102 of the 211 hundred thousands in 1851, or as many as could pass through such a place in 102 days, would represent the increase of the people of Great Britain in half a century.

COLORED POPULATION NORTH AND SOUTH.

The Richmond *Examiner* publishes an interesting statistical article, contrasting the physical condition of the free blacks of the North and the slaves of the South. The *Examiner* says:—

In Maine there are 1,355 free blacks, of whom 94 are insane—1 to 14! In Louisiana there were 45 insane out of 193,194 slaves—1 in every 4,310. In Massachusetts the ratio of insanity among the free negroes was 1 to every 43. In Virginia, 1 to 1,286. In Missouri, 1 to 979. In Illinois, 1 to 47. The census of 1850 showed that there was 1 blind person to every 2,445 whites, 1 blind to every 2,645 slaves, whilst among the free colored persons of the North there is 1 blind to every 870. There is 1 idiot to every 1,040 slaves, and 1 idiot to every 436 free blacks at the North! The total of afflicted, of blind, deaf, dumb, idiotic, and insane, among slaves at the South, is 1 to every 1,057, while these maladies are endured among the free blacks of the North in the ratio of 1 to every 311.

POPULATION OF BRITISH NORTH AMERICAN COLONIES.

The population and extent of the British North American Colonies, will be seen by the following statement, prepared in the office of the chief superintendent of education, at Toronto:—

Year.	Provinces.	Population.	Square Miles.
1852	Upper Canada.....	953,239	147,832
1852	Lower Canada.....	890,261	201,989
1851	New Brunswick.....	193,800	27,700
1851	Nova Scotia.....	276,117	18,746
1848	Prince Edward's Island.....	62,678	2,184
1851	Newfoundland.....	101,300	57,000
1851	Hudson's Bay Territory.....	180,000	2,500,000
1851	Labrador.....	5,000	170,000
Total.....		2,662,695	3,125,401

POPULATION OF CHIEF CITIES.

	1844.	1846.	1852.
Toronto, U. C.	18,420	21,000	30,775
Hamilton.....	5,669	6,832	14,112
Kingston.....	6,840	9,500	11,585
Quebec, L. C.....	34,500	37,000	42,052
Montreal.....	44,093	50,000	57,715
Frederickton, N. B.....	3,700	4,000	4,458
St. Johns.....	19,500	20,000	22,745
Halifax, N. S.....	22,000	23,500	26,000
Charlottetown, P. E. L.....	3,904	4,500	4,717
St. Johns, N. F.....	12,000	19,000	21,000

SCHOOL POPULATION OF CINCINNATI.

The School Census of Cincinnati, Ohio, has just been taken by authority, as a basis for distribution of the State education fund. The Cincinnati *Atlas*, from which we derive the returns, says:—"It is a remarkable fact—if it be really a fact—that with the increase of the population for two years, the number of children is two thousand less in 1853 than in 1851. It will be noted also as remarkable, that in the eighth district there is a decrease in numbers of one thousand and ninety-six! There certainly must have been some mistake in the collecting together this census."

SCHOOL CENSUS—YOUTH BETWEEN FOUR AND TWENTY-ONE YEARS OF AGE.

	WHITES					COLOR'D.	
	1851.	1852.	1853.	Increase.	Decrease.	1853.	
1st District.....	2,772	3,421	3,274	147	35	
2d ".....	2,525	2,893	3,318	220	372	
3d ".....	1,709	1,154	1,270	116	
4th ".....	3,225	1,659	1,778	119	87	
5th ".....	2,375	2,632	2,408	224	135	
6th ".....	2,406	2,458	2,568	110	62	
7th ".....	3,029	2,984	3,343	359	153	
8th ".....	3,369	3,526	2,430	1,096	26	
9th ".....	3,686	2,649	2,735	86	104	
10th ".....	3,889	2,414	2,835	421	16	
11th ".....	3,470	3,560	4,162	602	12	
12th ".....	2,385	2,284	2,617	333	35	
13th ".....	3,066	4,273	4,104	168	38	
14th ".....	2,210	1,767	1,463	304	10	
15th ".....	133	105	105	
	40,259	37,778	38,205	2,366	1,939	1,053	

The returns for the fifteenth district have not been received, it is therefore estimated at the same as last year.

JOURNAL OF MINING AND MANUFACTURES.

SILVER AT THE COPPER MINES OF LAKE SUPERIOR.

The Hon. THUMAN SMITH, United States Senator from Connecticut, has written a letter announcing an important discovery in respect to our mineral interest on Lake Superior, which he made by the agency of an accomplished metallurgist recently from Europe. Mr. Smith has spent most of the summer on the Lake, actively employed in attending to the interests of several companies in which he is concerned. It has not been known, or even suspected until recently, that there is in the matrix of some of the mines, if not all, an ore of silver. Mr. Smith gives a statement of four parcels which were reduced with the results (we quote from his letter) as follow :—

No. 1. From Northwest Mine, yield after the rate of 56 oz. of silver to 100 lbs. of ore—equal to 1,120 oz. per ton; value, \$1,855 21.

No. 2. Isle Royale Mine, yield after the rate of 26 oz. to the 100 lbs.—equal to 520 oz. per ton; value, \$627 20.

No. 3. From the same mine, yield after the rate of 40 oz. to the 100 lbs.—equal to 800 oz. per ton; value, \$968.

No. 4. Cliff Mine, yield after the rate of 12 oz. to the 100 lbs.—equal to 240 oz. per ton; value, \$290 40.

I am informed by Gen. Villomil, the very able Minister from Ecuador, it is considered in South America that an ore which will yield from 4 to 6 ounces will pay all expenses, including, of course, the mining expenses. It should be borne in mind that I brought forward these ores, adhering as they did to the copper, without the slightest suspicion that they were argentiferous, and therefore it cannot be said that they were selected specimens. But I must believe that these results will prove greatly above any average that can be obtained by practical operations. That the ores are likely to add much to the value of our mines, I strongly believe. The mining expenses are all incurred in taking out the copper. Hence, whatever may be obtained in the form of silver, will be an addition to our resources.

The questions may be asked—What is the amount of these ores? Are they likely to become a matter of national importance?

I am not prepared to answer these inquiries. My belief is, the quantity will prove to be very considerable, and perhaps large in some of the mines, and large in the aggregate. I shall take measures to have this subject investigated, so far as it can be done at this late season of the year, and I may make a further communication thereon.

I feel it to be my duty to caution the public against wild speculations based on these revelations. I am engaged in the business of mining, which I hold to be useful, legitimate, and proper; but I abhor stock-jobbing—it has been the greatest curse of Lake Superior. Let us keep cool, ascertain the facts, and act accordingly. I make this statement because my experiments are on the streets, and I deem it best to have the case in an authentic form.

RE-OPENING OF A SILVER MINE IN PENNSYLVANIA.

The re opening of an ancient silver mine in Pequea Valley, Lancaster county, has caused some excitement. The mine is said to have belonged to English capitalists, who, on the breaking out of the revolutionary war, buried their tools and closed up the shafts and tunnels. Since then the existence of the mine has been forgotten, or only remembered as a traditional fable, until recently, when some traces were found of it, and operations were commenced under the superintendence of Mr. E. Bowen. He has succeeded in clearing out one tunnel or adit level, 100 yards long, 7 feet high, and 5 feet wide; a shaft 50 feet deep, and the beginning of another adit level. Assays that have been made of the ore (argentiferous galena) show that it contains over \$500 worth of silver to the ton, and yields about 80 per cent of lead. A letter from Mr. Bowen, dated October 26, 1853, states his conviction that the mine was

abandoned hurriedly, not from its proving unprofitable, but solely on account of the war; that the tools will be found buried in the mine, and that a large quantity of ore, previously mined and cleaned, is deposited also with them: He adds, that one month's experience proves that the mine, as now exposed, will pay the interest of \$1,300,000 on a working capital of \$100,000, and with a capacity equal to 100 men. He publishes, also, a letter from Hon. James Cooper, who states that his father, who was born in 1764, in the Pequea settlement, had spoken of hearing from his father, of the existence of these mines, and of their having been abandoned and filled up by the English operators, on account of the war. There seems to be no doubt either of the former history or the present value of the mines, and their re-discovery will make a great addition to the already vast mineral wealth of Lancaster county.

QUICKSILVER IN CALIFORNIA.

(TRANSLATED FROM THE COURIER DES ETATS UNIS.)

The annual production of mercury at the mines of Almaden, (Spain,) Idria, (Frioul,) Hungary, Transylvania, Peru, etc., is valued at from thirty to forty thousand quintals, (cwt.) China and Japan also produce an equal quantity of mercury, but, I believe, do not export the article. Notwithstanding this large production the supply is by no means equal to the demand, and many gold and silver mines have ceased to be worked on account of the scarcity and high price of that metal. The mystery which yet envelops the operations at the mines of New Almaden, has prevented me from obtaining accurate returns, but we can to some extent supply that want from our own observations, and enable your readers to appreciate the value of these mines in California. The richest minerals of Europe are those of Almaden and Idria; the first contain 10 per cent of metal, the latter 8 per cent. The other minerals are less rich. I have analyzed several samples of cinnabar, taken from different spots in New Almaden, and they have yielded from 29 to 72 per cent. The general average was about 50 per cent; that is to say, the cinnabar is from 10 to 11 times richer than that of Europe.

I have analyzed the refuse which came from the furnaces at New Almaden, and found 8 and 10 per cent of mercury. Thus have they thrown aside a mineral as rich as that of Idria and Almaden. The loss of 8 to 10 per cent, combined with a equal loss by evaporation on account of defective apparatus, is a most deplorable waste of the riches of the earth. There are at New Almaden ten furnaces for roasting, more or less imperfect in construction, and which, nevertheless, furnish, if in constant operation, from thirty to thirty-five thousand pounds of mercury weekly. To obtain that amount of metal one hundred thousand pounds of cinnabar are consumed, and from eighteen to twenty thousand pounds of mercury lost from bad management. The following calculation will serve to show at what weekly expense these mines could be worked, under a proper system of management:—

Fuel	\$160
Laborers' wages	1,500
Wear and tear of machinery	200
Expense of package, etc.	500
Interest on capital	1,500
Total.....	\$3,800

The above outlay would produce 50,000 lbs. of mercury. This would be working with a very limited capital, and it would be easy to double the product by increasing the capital from eighty to one hundred thousand dollars. I need not say that these calculations are not founded upon any results obtained at New Almaden; I neither know the receipts nor expenses of working those mines. I only wish to render apparent to all the importance to which that branch of metallurgic industry can be raised. But to return to New Almaden, the only important work which exists there is a "rift," or inclined plain, which conveys the mineral to the works. Do they find collections of pure mercury in those mines? We do not know, but think it ought to exist in considerable quantities, and that it would be discovered by well directed researches. The deposits of cinnabar appear very extensive in the neighborhood of the mines now worked, and we may safely predict that hereafter new and extensive works of a similar character will be established there.

D. D'HEINY.

STATISTICS OF THE SHOE MANUFACTURE.

This has become a great business—and though everybody is aware of this, very few are aware of the actual extent to which it is carried on.

In the State of Massachusetts it is the second in importance, agriculture being the first. It has not only a greater number of persons engaged in it than any other handicraft, but it probably pays better. The *Andover Advertiser* has an article giving the statistics of this business, from which it appears that the aggregate value of boots and shoes manufactured in the State is estimated at \$37,000,000, which equals the manufacture in all the other States combined, and exceeds that of any other manufacture in this commonwealth, the item of cotton goods of all kinds amounting to but \$12,103,449. Of the above value, \$12,000,000 worth are annually shipped to New York, where there are 250 boot and shoe warehouses, many of which sell from \$100,000 to \$1,000,000 a year, and three of them even exceed the highest sum named. The remainder, that are not used at home, are sent to the South and West, to California, the West India, South America, Australia, the Sandwich Islands, to England, and the continent of Europe.

The sale of "findings," which does not include leather, employs thirty-eight firms in New York, and amounts to \$600,000 a year. Most of the pegs used in this immense business are made in New Hampshire, and one firm, it is said, manufactures fifty bushels daily. The pegs are cut by machinery. A machine has been invented recently to drive them in an incredibly short space of time, and another machine for sewing and stitching has come in use.

Lynn is engaged in this business more extensively than any other town. With a population of 14,257, the number of manufactures is 144, and of operatives, 3,787 males, and 6,422 females; and the number of pairs made annually, 4,633,900; from 1840 to 1850 there were 707 dwelling houses built, and the number of rateable polls doubled. Danvers, population, 8,109; manufacturers, 35; operatives, 1,184 males, 693 females; pairs made, 1,123,000; dwelling houses increased from 479 to 1,020 from 1840 to 1850, and the number of rateable polls in a similar proportion. Stoneham, population, 2,885; manufacturers, 24; operatives, 415 males, 376 females; 850,000 pairs of children's shoes made annually. There is more than one male shoemaker to each family. In Grafton, one manufacturer uses 100 bushels of shoe-pegs per year.

The whole number of persons engaged in the business within the State, by the census of 1850, is 39,944.

MINERAL WEALTH OF EGYPT.

WILLIAM C. BRYANT, in one of his letters published in the *Evening Post*, says:—

When I was in Upper Egypt, I fell in with an Italian who was employed to obtain sulphur from a mine among these mountains. They are incredibly rich, said he, in beds of ore of various metals and other mineral productions; but these cannot be worked for want of fuel. Egypt has no mines of coal—all that is used in her steamers and her manufactures is brought from England. She has springs of mineral oil, the indication of beds of coal, and wherever they are to be found, the government has made excavations to a great depth and at a great cost, but without success. An Arab, in wandering among the mountains at the Red Sea, not long since, found a little pool of quicksilver where it had flowed from the rocks. He attempted to scoop it up with his hands, but it slid through his fingers. He then drew it up in his mouth, filled with it the leathern bottle in which he carried water, and brought it home. He was taken ill immediately afterward and died, probably from the effect of the quicksilver he had swallowed, so that the spot where he found it is still unknown, though diligent search has been made for it.

CAPITAL INVESTED IN MANUFACTURES IN THE UNITED STATES.

The entire capital invested in the various manufactures in the United States, on the 1st of June, 1850, not to include any establishments producing less than the annual value of \$500—

Amounted, in round numbers, to	\$530,000,000
Value of raw material	550,000,000
Amount paid for labor	240,000,000
Value of manufactured articles	1,020,000,000
Number of persons employed	1,050,000

MILK FOR MANUFACTURERS.

Milk now possesses other offices besides the production of butter and cheese, and the flavoring of tea. It has made its way into the textile factories, and has become a valuable adjunct in the hands of the calico printer and the woolen manufacturer. In the class of pigment printing work, which, indeed, is a species of painting, the colors are laid on the face of the goods in an insoluble condition, so as to present a full, brilliant face. As a vehicle for effecting this process of decoration, the insoluble albumen obtained from eggs was always used until Mr. Pattison, of Glasgow, found a more economical substitute in milk. For this purpose buttermilk is now bought up in large quantities from the farmers, and the required insoluble matter is obtained from it at a price far below that of the egg albumen. This matter the patentee has called "Iacbrine." A second application of the same article—milk—has just been developed, by causes arising out of the recent high price of olive oil. The woolen manufacturers are now using the high-priced article mixed with milk. This mixture is said to answer much better than oil alone, the animal fat contained in the globules of the milk apparently furnishing an element of more powerful effect upon the woolen fibers than the pure vegetable oil alone.—*London Med. Jour.*

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

LAY OF THE ANXIOUS DEBTOR,

(ADDRESSED TO HIS CONFIDING BUTCHER.)

AIR—"Will you love me then as now?"

You have told me that you trust me,
And you prove the words you speak,
As you send the meat in daily,
And the book but once a week!
May I hope your kindly feeling
Nothing ever will estrange,
And this pleasant mode of dealing
Circumstances ne'er will change?
When you send a twelvemonth's bill in,
Aid to pay I don't know how,
When you hear I've not a shilling,
Will you trust me then as now?

Though a month may pass unclouded,
And you send what's ordered home,
Yet, as week on week advances,
Thoughts across your mind must come.
You will lose your old politeness,
And reluctant fill your tray,
Cheerful looks will lose their lightness
When you find I never pay.
When my debts have pressed upon me,
And my tradesmen make a row,
Will the change find you unchanging—
Will you trust me then as now?—*Punch.*

FRAUDS IN WOOLEN CLOTH.

A correspondent of the *Genesee Farmer* makes a curious development in relation to woolen cloths manufactured abroad for the American market. He says:—

It is not generally known that hundreds, and I might say thousands, of bales of the cast off rags of paupers have been imported and worked up in woolen cloth to sell to the American people. These rags, as you told us not long since, were formerly used as manure. Imported rags, all wool, bring seven cents per pound in the New York market; rags half cotton and half wool, three to four cents per pound. Now, who among your readers, if they knew it, would wear a garment made in part of wool of the worst description, and part of the lousy rags of beggars? Who would, if they knew it, wear woolen clothes fit only for manure? All the low-priced men's wear is of this description of cloth, and may be easily detected by putting one's hand upon it—it feels as rough as a horse-card. There is no occasion for manufacturers to work up old rags in this country, where wool is so plenty; but they will continue to make it as long as they can humbug, sell, and fleece the people out of their money. This counterfeit cloth is made of imported rags, and imported wool that cost but little more than the rags. The frauds the manufacturers commit upon the unsuspecting laboring men throws the sheep speculation entirely in the shade.

I reluctantly acknowledge the general laxity of trading morals, and the little value set upon virtuous actions; and it is astonishing how few persons among the laboring classes, deeply interested in agricultural prosperity, take the trouble to read, think, and act upon broad and sound principles.

THE MAN RETIRED FROM BUSINESS.

Almost every man sets out in life with the determination, when a certain sum has been accumulated, to retire from the cares of business and enjoy the balance of his days "*otium cum dignitate*." Visions of sunny farms and rural retreats are ever before him; but, unfortunately, few men have the courage, when the required sum has been obtained, to be contented and retire. In the course of years new tastes have been acquired, and new wants added to the humble catalogue with which he commenced life. The rural retreat has become a suburban residence, with coach, horses, stables, &c., and a few thousands more have become necessary. So he goes toiling on, his ambition widening and extending as he pushes and urges his way on to competence and fortune. During all this time he forgets he is getting older—that his capacity for enjoyment is getting more contracted every day—that his tastes and habits are becoming confirmed in business life, so that when he does muster up the firmness to yield his place in the business world to younger men, he is about as unhappy a mortal as one could meet on a summer's day.

It is related of a tallow-chandler of London, who had accumulated a fortune and retired to his villa, that time hung so heavily on his hands that he used to have a melting day once a week, and make his own candles for amusement. He had probably neglected through his life to lay in a store of knowledge, to cultivate a taste for reading, or otherwise prepare his mind as well as his pocket for the purposes of a life of leisure. His great object had been to make enough to retire on, without caring to provide something to retire with.

That man alone can hope to enjoy a pleasant leisure in the evening of his days who has intellectual means of enjoyment always at command. He must, or should, be satisfied with a comfortable independence and leave the cares of business in the meridian of life, if he can, before he become so habituated to a certain routine, to deviate from which, or leave, instead of comfort or happiness, would only make him miserable and discontented.

FRAUDS IN TRADE.

So common have frauds in trade, by adulteration of cheap with dearer substances, become, that one scarcely feels safe now-a-days in trusting to anything save his own close examination, and even chemical test of articles of family consumption. It was not so when old-fashioned honesty was not accounted stupidity—when a man was content to earn a respectable living for himself and family, and did not set up his coach contemporaneously with his grocery-shop—when his sons chopped wood and wore home-spun, and his daughters cooked his breakfast before they went to the district school—when swindling was accounted crime, and cheating retained its dictionary definition.

A man must grow rich *now*, with a rush. His sons, as soon as they shed their petticoats, must sport gold watches and diamond rings, and his daughters leave off long pantalettes for long Cashmere shawls and rosewood pianos. He can't find God in the old wooden church or the little village school-house; and we doubt if God can find *him* in the dim light of richly-stained glass, and velvet curtains, hid beneath the mass of pride, and vanity, and avarice, that is inclosed within the frescoed walls of our modern theaters—churches, we meant to have said. It takes a "power of money" for a poor man to ape, with a moderate degree of success, a millionaire, and honest trade is too slow a process of becoming a nabob.

LAW TO PREVENT BAD DEBTS.

An old merchant of New York city says he is quite convinced that if a simple law, like the following, were passed, it would prevent 75 per cent of the bad debts now made, besides promoting eminently honor, integrity, and upright mercantile character:—

"Be it enacted, &c., That all laws for the collection of any debt, contracted after the passage of this law, be abolished, except where property is transferred for its security; the property so transferred to be the only legal security of such debt."

We entertain much the same opinion.

A COMMERCIAL CONSCIENCE.

An old Dutchman, named Shumm, who lived in one of the wretched hovels that stand in the rear of Sheriff-street, and whose apparent poverty and manifest sufferings from a dreadful case of hernia had long excited the sympathy of his humane neighbors, died of asthma and a complication of other diseases. He was well known to be of a very obstinate and eccentric disposition; and, although he had been confined to his bed some weeks, he not only rejected all medical aid, but persisted to the last in his singular habit of sleeping in the whole of his wardrobe, which consisted chiefly in a pair of breeches, that at some remote era had been constructed of blue velvet, and a sailor's jacket, and a frieze overcoat, all of which exhibited accumulated proofs of the old man's attachment. He sent for Mr. Van Duerson, a respectable countryman of his residing in the neighborhood, who had given him charitable relief, and privately requested him to make his will! To this gentleman's great surprise, he bequeathed various sums of money, amounting altogether to \$3,700, to children and grand-children residing at Newark and Albany, and confidentially informed him where his property was deposited. He then narrated to Mr. Van Duerson the following remarkable facts in his history:—

He stated that about twenty-five years ago he was a porter to a mercantile house in Hamburg, and having been long in its employ, was frequently entrusted with considerable sums of money for conveyance to other establishments. In an hour of evil influence he was induced to violate his trust, and abscond to this country with a large sum. Having arrived, he invested the greater part of it in the purchase of two houses, which adjoined each other, and which, before he had effected an insurance on them, were burnt to the ground. Considering this judgment of heaven upon his dishonesty, he determined to devote the remainder of his life to a severe course of industry and parsimony, with the single object in view of making full restitution to the persons whom he had injured, or to their descendants.

He adopted another name, and with the means he had left, commenced business in this city as a tobacconist; and although his trade was a retail one, and he had again suffered a heavy loss from fire, he had succeeded, five years since, in acquiring sufficient property to accomplish his just and elevated purpose. He then, accordingly, sold his stock in trade, and was preparing to transmit the necessary amount to Hamburg, where the mercantile firm he had defrauded still continues, when he ascertained that it had a branch establishment, or agency counting house, at Philadelphia. Thither he went, and paid the sum of \$14,000, being equivalent to the original sum he had embezzled, with a certain rate of interest. The latter, however, was generously returned to him by a son of one of the partners, and this, together with some surplus money, he has bequeathed as above stated. For the last five years he has lived in utter obscurity, and in severe accordance with his long-formed habits of parsimony. His executor, Mr. Van Duerson, found the aboved-named sum of \$3,700, principally in doubletons, curiously concealed in a certain private department of the tenacious breeches before specified; and it was ascertained that the old man's dreadful case of hernia was a case of something far less objectionable. The remainder of his money was found under the patches of his jacket, with the exception of a small sum in shillings and sixpences discovered in an old snuff-jar, which seems to have been the depository of his current funds.

THE PARIS EXHIBITION OF 1855.

A letter from Paris states that satisfactory reports have been received to the invitation, which the French government transmitted to every country of Christendom, to supply domestic products for the Universal Exhibition at Paris in 1855. In order to astonish the world the more, a committee of twelve literati of the capital have devised an article as a tribute and illustration of French literature; it is a volume of the dimensions of a large journal—a grand folio of a thousand pages, to which a hundred French writers of celebrity will be summoned to contribute. Each will treat some particular and prime division of the Exhibition—the most useful, curious, or brilliant; in verse or in prose. Thus the whole will be emblazoned, described, commemorated, and, it may be hoped, immortalized, by the most gifted and practised pens. The volume is to show, besides, the utmost excellence to which typography, photography, engraving, drawing, the imaginative and the exquisite in the fine arts, have attained, so far, in the present century. The cost will be enormous; how it is

to be defrayed, has not been determined; but on this head, the sanguine projectors and the correspondents of the press, do not seem to be in the least uneasy. A lively interest is already excited throughout France, in the success of the Exhibition; if Christendom should remain at peace, and the country internally tranquil, it will be the very climax in every respect.

GREAT RESULTS FROM A SMALL BEGINNING.

The New York *Artisan* relates the following anecdote, which we republish for the encouragement of persons of small resources, except in their willing hands and honest hearts:—

Mrs. B. (the respected widow of Mr. B., some years since an extensive and opulent merchant in this city,) becoming reduced in circumstances, with four children to support, took a small thread and needle store in Washington-street, in a house fitted up by a sister of a Mr. A., an eminent baker of thirty years' standing in New York. Having purchased 7 lbs. of flour wherewith to make a batch of bread for her children, she innocently enough, on its withdrawal from the oven, placed it on the counter to cool. Some parties called in accidentally to make some trifling purchase, and, remarking the nice fresh-looking bread, exclaimed—

"Oh, Mrs. B., what beautiful-looking bread! Will you sell me a loaf?" She replied—"It was intended for my children, but to please a customer, I will sell it."

The proceeds and profits on that one sale enabled her to purchase 14 lbs. more, which was speedily converted into domestic bread, and was rapidly sold. Progressing thus, and finding such a demand for this description of bread, she was soon enabled to purchase a barrel of flour, and finally, after some years of extraordinary success in the business, she purchased 500 acres of land in Michigan, 300 of which, five years ago, were sown with wheat and in a high state of cultivation. On these 300 acres she raised, in one year, \$6,000 worth of wheat.

SHIPNOLOGY.

Nothing so strikingly indicates the change which has taken place in our mercantile marine as the ingenuity displayed in the invention of names for ships. Formerly our merchants were satisfied with a modest nomenclature—calling their vessels after their wives or their friends, by the name of some ancient worthy or modern hero, or by some name or adjective expressive of strength or safety. Now all this is changed, and *speed* seems to be the only desideratum. We have the *Courser*, the *Bucephalus*, the *Eclipse*, the *Flying Dutchman*, and the *Flying Childers*; the *Stag Hound*, the *Wild Pigeon*, the *Swallow*, and the *Bald Eagle*; the *Sea Foam* and the *Ocean Spray*; the *West Wind* and the *Whirlwind*; the *Simoon* and the *Sirocco*; and lastly, the *Thunder Cloud*, the *Phantom*, the *Tornado*, and the *Wings of the Morning*. What next!

IT'S WHAT YOU SPEND.

"It's what thee'll spend, my son," said a sage old quaker, "not what thee'll make which will decide whether thee's to be rich or not." The advice was trite, for it was Franklin's in another shape: "Take care of the pennies, and the pounds will take care of themselves." But it cannot be too often repeated. Men are continually indulging in small expenses, saying to themselves that it is only a trifle, yet forgetting that the aggregate is serious—that even the sea-shore is made up of petty grains of sand. Ten cents a day even is thirty-six dollars and a half a year, and that is the interest of a capital of six hundred dollars. The man who saves ten cents a day only, is so much richer than him who does not, as if he owned a life estate in a house worth six hundred dollars.

PROVERBS FOR BUSINESS MEN.

Honesty is the best policy. Short reckonings make long friends. A man may buy gold too dear. A needy man's budget is full of schemes. A rolling stone gathers no moss. Credit lost is like a broken looking-glass. Debt is the worst kind of poverty. Pay as you go, and keep from small scores. Sudden trust brings sudden repentance.

THE BOOK TRADE.

- 1.—*The Law of Contracts*. By THEOPHILUS PARSONS, LL. D., Dane Professor of Law in Harvard University at Cambridge. Vol. I., pp. 776. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

Mr. Parsons' long experience in commercial law, both as a practitioner of the highest standing, and recently as Professor in the Cambridge Law School, has enabled him to discuss the subject of his work in the fullest and most satisfactory manner. Bailments, Partnership, Bills, and Notes, Agency, and all other matters in which a contract is an essential part, are treated of with a completeness which makes the book even superior to most of the large separate works on each of these various subjects, and what will commend it especially to those who have sometimes need of coming to a speedy conclusion on the points involved, it rigorously excludes from the text everything in the nature of case-statements and conflicting decisions. Where there is yet a doubt the Professor says so, but gives his opinion as to the preponderance of authority, adding throughout in the foot-notes, full and carefully corrected references to the reported cases. While therefore it is valuable to the lawyer as a work of reference, it is easy of comprehension to those not bred to the profession, and we can recommend it to merchants desirous of learning something of the legal rights and liabilities connected with every-day business, as a clear, safe, and reliable authority. In every respect, both of style, arrangement, and philosophical deduction, it is a valuable accession to legal literature, and cannot fail to command the highest reputation.

- 2.—*Scotia's Bards*. 8vo., pp. 558. New York: Robert Carter.

We have books containing selections from the poets of England, America, Germany, Italy and France, and now one of the brothers of the enterprising publisher of this volume has grouped in graceful form some of the choicest gems of Scotland's gifted bards. Commencing with Thompson, the author of the "Seasons," the editor introduces specimens of more than thirty Scotch poets, each prefaced with a concise and pertinent sketch of the author. Then follow a few pages of selections from "Songs for the Nursery," which Lord Jeffrey said contained more touches of genuine pathos—more happy poetical images—more sweet and engaging pictures of what is peculiar in depth, softness and thoughtfulness of Scotch domestic affection, than he had met with in anything like the same compass since the days of Burns. Near the close of the volume the editor has placed several pieces from anonymous writers, with a few from others of less celebrity than those contained in the body of the collection. The selections have been most copious from the minor poets, or those least known in this country. The selections throughout are judiciously made, and the editor has displayed good taste and a sound judgment in the entire arrangement of the work. It is printed on a large, handsome type, on the finest white paper, with some finely executed illustrations, and forms altogether a splendid and an attractive work.

- 3.—*The New Household Receipt Book*; containing Maxims, Directions and Specifics for Promoting Health, Comfort and Improvement in the Homes of the People. By SARAH JOSEPHA HALL, author of "Northwood," "Woman's Record," "The New Book of Cookery," &c. 12mo., pp. 392. New York: H. Long & Brother.

A most useful and really valuable book, containing a thousand things which every housekeeper should understand. Mrs. Hale is a woman of good taste, good sense and sound judgment, and while holding the pen of a ready writer, she is not deficient by any means in the accomplishments which go so far to render every home a comfortable and happy one. It is designed as a companion to her "Ladies' New Cook Book," and contains matter equally, if not more important and useful. It should be found in the hands of every housekeeper in the land, and we hope it will be.

- 4.—*A History of England*. By JOHN LANGARD, D.D. Vol. iv. 12mo., pp. 337. Boston: Phillips, Sampson & Co.

The present edition of this history, which we have before noticed, is to be completed in thirteen volumes. This volume commences with the campaign against the Scots, in 1327, and closes with the execution of Sawtre, in 1399. It includes the reign of Richard II. and part of Henry IV. and Edward III.

5.—*The British Poets*. 18mo. volumes. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

In a former number of the *Merchants' Magazine* we noticed this superb collection of the British Poets, in course of publication by Little, Brown & Co., of Boston, and referred to the publication in this series of the poetical works of Gray, Goldsmith and Pope, the two former in one volume each and the latter in three volumes. We have since received from the same publishers, in continuation, uniform, and in the same beautiful and correct style, the poems of Prior, in two volumes, with a life by the Rev. John Mitford; the poems of Cowper, in three volumes; the poems of Butler, in two volumes, and Collins in one volume. The series, when completed, will form beyond all question the best and most complete edition of the British poets from Spencer to Moore, comprising some sixty volumes, and embracing, besides those already enumerated, the poetical works of Akenside, Beattie, Burns, Churchill, Dryden, Falconer, Milton, Parnell, Shakspeare, Scerry, Wyatt, Swift, Thompson, Kirke White, Young, &c. The enterprise is regarded, as well it may, with the highest respect. The volumes are in every particular, to say the least, equal to the celebrated Aldine edition, and the price at which they are offered—seventy-five cents per volume—so low as to place the volumes in the possession of almost every admirer of English poetry. Each work is accompanied with a comprehensive personal and critical memoir of the author, from writers of eminence. This publication will do away, in the minds of Americans of taste, with the necessity of importing the Aldine or any other English edition of these poets. We shall refer to this edition as it progresses, and we hope, as we have no doubt such will be the fact, that the publishers may be amply remunerated for their liberality in this noble enterprise.

6.—*Wild Scenes and Song-Birds*. By C. W. WEBBER, author of "Wild Scenes and Hunters," &c. With Twenty Illustrations, printed in Colors, from Drawings by Mrs. C. W. Webber and Alfred J. Miller. 8vo., pp. 349. New York: George P. Putnam & Co.

The present volume, "*Wild Scenes and Song-Birds*," as the author correctly remarks, can fairly be considered but another step towards that assimilation between the formalities of mere technical natural history and the graces and uses of general literature, for which the author, in his proper character of hunter-naturalist (yet in his prime,) has labored for so many years. Discarding every thing of a purely technical character, he blends the useful in nature with the attractive, and discourses to the reader of Nature's wildest, gayest, gentlest themes. The fifteen plates of birds and flowers, printed in colors, by Mrs. Webber, the author's wife, are really beautiful—the best specimens of the art that we have ever seen. In these "she has," says the author, "simply endeavored to illustrate her own views of 'woman's rights,' in the earnest effort to achieve something undoubtedly in the true departments of art which seem most congenial and proper to feminine ambition, viz.—bird and flower painting, with their cognate associations of the ornate, the graceful and the beautiful." Five plates in the volume are by Alfred J. Miller, of Baltimore. Four of these, in which Indians appear, are scenes in a camp of Delawares. Their elegance adds greatly to the attractive features of the work. The letterpress is ornamental and the illustrations spirited and brilliant—and altogether, we have a volume of more than ordinary taste, elegance and beauty.

7.—*The Works of Ben Jonson*. With a Biographical Memoir, by WILLIAM GIFFORD. A New Edition. 8vo., pp. 944. Boston: Phillips, Sampson & Co.

Ben Jonson, who was born ten years after Shakspeare, has been regarded as second only in dramatic literature to the great dramatic poet, although some are disposed to claim for the more Shaksperian genius of Bumont and Fletcher a higher rank. At all events, he founded a style of regular English comedy, massive, well compacted, and fitted to endure. His works altogether consist of about fifty dramatic pieces, but by far the greater part are masques and interludes. The volume before us is, we believe, the first complete edition of Jonson's works that has ever been published in this country. It forms a compact, handsomely-printed volume of nearly one thousand pages, embracing all his comedies, masques, epigrams, &c. The collection is prefaced with a biographical, personal, and critical memoir of the author's life, by William Gifford, the celebrated English review writer. This memoir is not merely a rehash or transcript of the vague accounts of former biographers, which each has taken in succession from his predecessors; but it is written with great ability, and evinces a critical acumen rarely met with in productions of its class. We are happy to learn that it is to be followed in uniform style by the works of Bumont and Fletcher.

- 8.—*History of the City of New York.* By DAVID VALENTINE, Clerk of the Common Council. 8vo., pp. 404. New York: George P. Putnam & Co.

Mr. Valentine, who has for many years been connected with the government of New York in the capacity of City Clerk, enjoyed rare opportunities for collecting the materials for the present work. It has been his aim to trace the progress of the city of New York in such a manner as to illustrate to the reader of the present day its gradual development, from a wilderness, through the maturing stages of a hamlet, a village and a city. Commencing with the aboriginal inhabitants of the island and of the adjacent country, he brings the history down to the close of the first half of the last century. We are glad to notice that the author is engaged in preparing for press the subsequent history, which will probably bring it down to the present time. The task thus far has been performed with ability, industry and zeal, and we regard the present volume as a most valuable contribution to the historical literature of the State and the country.

- 9.—*A Month in England.* By HENRY T. TUCKERMAN. 12mo., pp. 243. New York: J. S. Redfield.

A month in England, in our day, with the iron road, affords more time for observation than a year some quarter of a century since. Novelty in books of travels in the mother-land is scarcely to be expected from the ordinary writer; and although, in the present instance, well-known scenes and places have been examined, a charm is thrown around them by the pen of one of the purest writers and best minds in America. It is just such a book as a Goldsmith or an Addison in our day, and visiting as strangers the same places, &c., would be likely to write. It has chapters on London authors, castles and Shakspeare, a day at Oxford, &c., written in that graceful, elegant style which characterizes every thing from the pen of the accomplished author.

- 10.—*Minnesota and its Resources.* To which are Appended Camp-Fire Sketches; or Notes of a Trip from St. Paul to Pembina and Selkirk Settlements, on the Red River of the North. By J. WESLEY BOND. 12mo., pp. 384. New York: J. S. Redfield.

This work is designed to answer the numerous inquiries constantly made relative to an interesting and important region of the great West. It gives, in answer to such inquiries, a general view of Minnesota as it existed prior to its organization as a territorial government, in 1849, and "as it is" at the present time. It probably contains more reliable information on the subject than any work yet published. As a guide to the emigrant, and the tourist to search of general information and pleasure, it will be found to contain much valuable information and interesting knowledge. The work is highly commended in letters, which are appended, from distinguished and authoritative sources. It is illustrated with a fine, and we presume accurate map of Minnesota.

- 11.—*The Mud Cabin; or, the Character and Tendency of the British Institutions, as Illustrated in their Effect upon Human Character and Destiny.* By WARREN ISHAM. 12mo., pp. 312. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

This work is a sober and candid examination of the effects of the civil and political systems of England upon the mass of the people. The author spent many months in visiting the various classes and investigating their condition and the influences which oppressed them. There is nothing bitter or uncharitable in the work,—which can hardly fail to impress every reader with the sincerity of its author's views. It is deserving of an extensive circulation throughout this country, and will serve to dispel many illusory views of the value of British institutions.

- 12.—*The Lawyer's Story; or, The Orphan's Wrongs.* By a Member of the New York Bar. 12mo., pp. 372. New York: H. Long & Brothers.

A story of more than ordinary power. The orphan's wrongs are depicted in glowing language, and we can without much effort realize the effect that an orphan's wrongs, as depicted in this tale, must necessarily have upon a lively and vivid imagination.

- 13.—*Harry Coverdale's Courtship, and What Came of it.* By the Author of "Frank Fairleigh's Courtship," "Ferris Arundel," &c. 12mo., pp. 341. New York: H. Long & Brother.

"Frank Fairleigh," although less known from the obscurity of the writer, possessed in an eminent degree those elements of character and genius which gave so much *celat* to the most favored works of Charles Dickens.

- 14.—*A Dictionary of Arts, Manufactures, and Mines: containing a Clever Exposition of their Principles and Practice.* By ANDREW URE, M. D. Illustrated with nearly Sixteen Hundred Engravings on Wood. Reprinted from the fourth London Edition, corrected and greatly improved. 2 vols., 8vo., pp. 1,118 and 990. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

This edition of Ure's well-known Dictionary is one-third larger than any previous one issued in this country. It is brought down to the present time in its facts and statements, and contains, likewise, the results of the London Exhibition on all those points of which its contents treat. The leading objects of this unrivaled work are to instruct the manufacturer, metallurgist, and tradesman in the principles of their respective processes, so as to render them in reality masters of their business, and to emancipate them from a state of bondage to such as are too commonly the slaves of blind prejudice and vicious routine. Also, to afford to merchants, brokers, druggists, and others, characteristic descriptions of the commodities which pass through their hands; also, by exhibiting some of the finest developments of chemistry and physics, to lay open an excellent practical school to students of these kindred sciences; likewise, to teach capitalists who may be desirous of placing their funds in some productive bank of industry, to select judiciously among plausible claimants; also to give the general reader, intent chiefly on intellectual cultivation, a view of many of the noblest achievements of science, in effecting those grand transformations of matter to which England and the United States owe their paramount wealth, worth and power among the nations. The work is published in two handsome and substantially-bound volumes, which are a *fac simile* of the London edition, but free from many typographical errors which appear in the latter. Indeed, this edition of Ure's Dictionary is the most accurate and complete that has ever issued from the press.

- 15.—*The Conflict of Ages: or, The Great Debate on the Normal Relations of God and Man.* By EDWARD BEECHER, D. D. 12mo., pp. 552. Boston: Philips, Sampson & Co.

The conflict of which this author treats is, to use his own words, "a conflict of the heart," "the subject of the conflict is a normal renovation of man." It is his opinion that we need a system that shall give us the power intelligently to meet and logically to solve all the great religious and social problems which we are called on to encounter in the great work of renovating the world and re-organizing society. He endeavors also to point out, as the cause of the conflict, an element foreign to the system, creating confusion in doctrines and churches, and paralyzing the energies of Christianity. We must confess, with all respect for the talents, piety, and learning of the author, that he seems to have undertaken a work beyond his reach. With the peculiar views he holds of evil, justice, retribution, and human nature, the question is not solvable. It does not come within the compass of those which are in his mind first principles. The reader will be instructed in many prominent topics of theology, and the variations of opinions which have of late years existed in a portion of the New England clergy, and he cannot withhold his approval of the character and talents of the writer; but the conflict of ages will still continue, unaffected by the expositions of these pages.

- 16.—*Golden Dreams and Leaden Realities.* By RALPH ROREN, with an Introductory Chapter by FRANCIS FOGIE, Sen., Esq. 12mo., pp. 344. New York: Putnam & Co.

A highly interesting and readable book, by, we presume, a returned Californian. It abounds in racy sketches, happily blending the "golden dreams" of life with its "leaden realities." Francis Fogie, judging from the vigor of his pen, is anything but an "old fogie;" and we predict for his book a wide circulation, and a host of gratified readers.

- 17.—*The Works of Joseph Addison.* Edited, with Critical and Explanatory Notes, by GEORGE WASHINGTON GREEN, in five volumes. 12mo., pp. 634. New York: G. P. Putnam & Co.

The second volume of this first complete American edition of the writings of Addison embraces his dialogues upon the Usefulness of Ancient Medals, accompanied with appropriate illustrations, Travels in Italy, &c., Essay on Virgil's Georgics, Discourse on Ancient and Modern Learning, Essay on the Christian Religion, and his private letters, which have never before been published with his works. The present edition, as we have before stated, contains the whole contents of Bishop Hurd's edition, besides the letters alluded to above, and Macaulay's Essay on his Life and Works.

- 18.—*Personal Sketches of His Own Times.* By Sir JONAH BARRINGTON, Judge of the High Court of Admiralty in Ireland, &c., &c. 12mo., pp. 540. New York: J. S. Redfield.

A most interesting medley of sketches of men and things in Ireland during the author's life. Commencing with his family connections, he goes on to speak of his early education, choice of a profession, and adoption of the law. But the larger portion of the book treats of "the times" of Irish beauties, Irish inns, singular customs in the Irish parliament, dueling, law of libel, and a hundred other subjects of equal interest. The anecdotes of Irish judges, lawyers, and Irish characters in general, who figured in his time, are brought prominently before the reader. His political character will be inferred from the statement, that he regarded radical reform, in reality, proximate revolution; universal suffrage, as inextinguishable uproar; and annual parliaments, nothing less than periodical bloodshed! On the whole, it is an interesting work, and one that will repay the student of Irish character and history for the perusal.

- 19.—*Moral Aspects of City Life.* By Rev. E. H. CHAPIN. New York: Henry Lyon.

New York may well be proud of such a preacher as this. The eight lectures—Moral Significance of the City, World of Traffic, Dominion of Fashion, Circle of Amusement, Three Vices, Three Social Forces, Lower Depths, Society and the Individual—take hold of the blessings and perils of city life with a giant's grasp, yet with an artist's fineness of touch. Seldom is an eloquent speaker so eloquent upon the printed page; almost never so free from verbiage, from exaggeration, from cant of profession, or place, or party, or creed. This born pulpit-orator has a popularity founded upon his shrewd common sense, his glowing philanthropy, his earnest hope, his enlarged charity, his progressive spirit. Of all the printed utterances Mr. C. has made, these lectures will stand at the head.

- 20.—*Outlines of Comparative Philology: With a Sketch of the Languages of Europe, arranged upon Philosophical Principles, and a brief History of the Art of Writing.* By M. SCHELE DE VERE, of the University of Virginia. 12mo., pp. 484. New York: G. P. Putnam & Co.

This work is divided into three parts, commencing with an inquiry into the nature of language, showing the connection between thoughts and words, with the various theories of the unity of language. The second part is devoted to the languages of Europe, and the third and last to a history of writing among all nations. Although the author does not pretend to lay before the reader novel or original views, he has succeeded in stating briefly and in a popular manner, with a view to give suggestive rather than complete information, what comparative philology is, and what it has done. The arrangement of the subject discussed is admirable, and its treatment clear and comprehensive. We know of no work of its size embodying so much information in a form so desirable, or so well adapted to impart to the student correct information in the important science of philology.

- 21.—*Up the River.* By F. W. SHELTON, author of "Rector of St. Bardolph's" and "Salatider the Dragon" With illustrations from original designs. 12mo., pp. 385. New York: Charles Scribner.

These papers originally graced the *Knickerbocker Magazine*, and are worthy of being collected and published in a permanent and beautiful form. They are, to use the words of a cotemporary, "inspired and infused with the sweet influences of the garden, the field and the grove. Their spirit is of the green earth and the blue sky. Their scenes, and feelings, and thoughts all belong to the country; and all are sure to touch the heart and finally linger in the memory. The tendency of such reading is to cheer, elevate and purify, and the more we have of it, in these artificial days, the better."

- 22.—*The Old Doctor: or, Stray Leaves from My Journal.* Being most Interesting Reminiscences of a Retired Physician. 12mo., pp. 384. New York: H. Long & Brother.

The sketches of character, drawn with the hand of a master, in this volume, are faithfully and gracefully portrayed, and the work is replete with interest and incident. Each sketch—The Old Doctor's Study, My Surprise on finding the Wine Bottle half empty, Edmond Marsden, Keeping Bachelor's Hall, The Death of the Poor Artist—points a separate moral, as well as forms a tale.

- 23.—*Justo Ucundono, Prince of Japan.* By PHILALETHES. 12mo., pp. 348. Baltimore: John Murphy.

A Catholic story, founded on fact. Justo Ucundono, Prince of Japan, marries Rosalia, a Christian virgin. The various systems of religion are presented to the prince, and Christianity in its every shade and variety. The Bible alone and the teaching of the Catholic Church are brought forward and carefully balanced, and not dismissed until the former is found wanting. Francis Xavier, representing the cause of authority, pleads powerfully and convincingly for the great corporation. He convinces the mind and affects the heart of Prince Justo, who decides in favor of authority and of a teaching church. The arguments are generally advanced in the form of discourses; and there is, of course, in the thoughts and language much of the amplification which in a written treatise would be regarded as defects.

- 24.—*Lectures to Young Men.* By WILLIAM G. ELIOT, Jr., Pastor of the Church of the Messiah, St. Louis. 18mo., pp. 190. Boston: Crosby, Nichols & Co.

We noticed in a former number of the *Merchants' Magazine* a volume of similar size and character, addressed to young women, in terms of commendation. The present volume embraces six lectures; the introductory lecture, which is a general appeal to young men as a distinct class in the community and as individuals, is eloquent and perusable. The five which follow are devoted to Self education, Leisure-time, Transgression, the Ways of Wisdom, and Religion. They are well written, and contain many valuable and useful suggestions, which we can cordially commend to the young men of all our large commercial cities.

- 25.—*The Convent and the Manse.* By HYLIA. 12mo., pp. 242. Boston: John P. Jewett & Co.

A religious novel, designed, as the writer states, to show the contrast between the pure and peaceable religion of Christ and that system which is its dangerous counterfeit, and to "bespeak for the humble, deluded stranger such kindly Christian treatment as may win him from darkness to light." It is, as will be inferred from the title, a Protestant story, written in a sincere and kindly spirit.

- 26.—*Old England and New England: in a Series of Views taken on the Spot.* By ALFRED BUNN, author of the "Stage before and behind the Curtain." Two volumes of the London edition complete in one. 12mo., paper covers, pp. 815. Philadelphia: A. Hart.

Another book about America by an Englishman, much in the vein à la Trollope, which will not prevent its being eagerly sought after and read by sensitive Americans.

- 27.—*The Captive: a Novel.* By LOUIS FERDINAND SCHMANOWSKY, author of the "Fall of Warsaw," "Henry Alfred," &c. Philadelphia: Published for the author, by A. Hart.

- 28.—*The Electro-Magnetic Telegraph.* With an Historical Account of its Rise, Progress, and Present Condition. Also, Practical Suggestions in regard to Insulation, and Protection from the effects of Lightning. Together with an Appendix, containing several important Telegraphic Decisions and Laws. By LAURENCE TURNBULL, M. D., Lecturer on Chemistry at the Franklin Institute of the State of Pennsylvania. 8vo., pp. 264. Philadelphia: A. Hart.

The character and design of this work is succinctly stated in the title-page, as quoted above. The present is a second edition, which has been revised, enlarged, and otherwise improved. Professor Turnbull has availed himself of all the published information—historical, scientific, and practical—having any bearing on the telegraph, and presented it in a convenient and comprehensive form. In the appendix to this edition are given several new and important telegraphic decisions, the telegraphic laws of several States, with the liability of telegraph companies for errors in dispatches, &c.



E. B. Bigelow.

HUNTER

SCIENTIFIC PLANTS' MAGAZINE.

Published July, 1879,

BY J. H. HUNTER, EDITOR AND PROPRIETOR.

NEW YORK: J. H. HUNTER, 1879.

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1879.

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SCIENTIFIC PLANTS' MAGAZINE.



A. J. Wilson.

HUNT'S

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.

Established July, 1839,

BY FREEMAN HUNT, EDITOR AND PROPRIETOR.

VOLUME XXX.

FEBRUARY, 1854.

NUMBER II.

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Art. I.—COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES.

NO. V.

COMMERCE AND THE FISHERIES LEADING OBJECTS OF THE PLYMOUTH SETTLERS—THEIR ENLARGED IDEAS IN RELATION TO TRADE—AGREEMENT WITH THE ENGLISH MERCHANTS—PROGRESS OF THE COLONY—BRITISH FISHERY AT NEW ENGLAND—VIRGINIA TOBACCO—NEW AMSTERDAM—EFFORT OF THE PLYMOUTH COUNCIL TO ESTABLISH THEIR EXCLUSIVE RIGHT IN THE NEW ENGLAND SEAS—THE LACONIA COMPANY—ENGLISH MONOPOLIES—TREATY OF THE PURITANS AND DUTCH—COMPANY OF NEW FRANCE—CLAYBORNE—CONNECTICUT, ETC., ETC.

THE Puritan congregation which migrated from the North of England to Holland in the early part of the reign of James I., had been agriculturists solely, before their removal, but in their new home were obliged to a dependence upon the mechanical arts mainly, which were there in a much more forward state than in England. Some of them, also, in the leading commercial nation of the world, yielded to the temptation of the profits to be acquired in the mercantile profession. In the situation in which they were thus placed, they found, it is true, that their spiritual objects either suffered, or were likely to suffer; but it was not to escape from Commerce and manufactures that they determined on another emigration from Holland to America, but to avoid the too ready inclination, as they regarded it, resulting from these pursuits, and from other circumstances connected with their position, to commingle with the Dutch people, and to reduce their own high moral and religious sentiments to the lower standard there prevailing. In America, it was never any part of their idea to return entirely to their original occupation, but from the first they designed to transplant to that region the practice of the new arts and pursuits which they had learned at Amsterdam and Leyden. The very desire of conserving their peculiar religious principle and social organization taught them the necessity of building up to its support a power of wealth and political strength in the colony they had projected, and they well understood how this end

was best to be accomplished. Hence, Commerce and the arts were cherished among the very foremost objects of the pilgrims. Instead of flying to a wilderness to avoid what has been called the contaminating spirit of trade, they went thither purposely that they might give to that spirit full liberty of exercise, without fear of its introducing them to a too intimate communion with principles, customs, and manners with which, though found connected, they did not consider it to have any legitimate relationship. They designed an exemplification of the fact they were well assured of, although some might doubt it then, as a few affect to do now, that good merchants may be not only fair men, but strict Christians, even after the strictest sect. Had they come directly from their first home to America, at the time the persecution of James drove them out, their views would, likely, have been something more contracted; but their sojourn in Holland furnished an excellent school for men who were to found new states in a wilderness, and, joined with their own former good qualities, made them the most efficient colonists ever sent out by England to any part of the world.

It was indeed not likely that any people not having an inclination toward mercantile pursuits should at that time project settlements in New England, or indeed within any part of the United States. All the examinations of the country had been made with reference to its commercial capacities. All the published accounts were devoted to the detail of its exchangeable riches, and to speculations upon the profits and magnitude of the trade which might, through colonization, be built up. Such was particularly the case with Capt. John Smith's publications, which furnished by far the most full and accurate description yet made of either Virginia or New England. Of course, intelligent men designing a removal to so remote a country, could not but have consulted the leading authority for some knowledge of its nature; and we are told by the great adventurer himself, that they had met with his book and map upon New England, and had their thoughts directed thither by their examination. The principal topic of this book is the fisheries; and Smith's statements on this point had been confirmed by the voyages, which, though limited in number, had been for some years regularly made to that quarter. Here was one established means of commercial pursuit in America, a good market being certain in Europe for whatever amount of fish might be taken. The idea of the fisheries and the trade therewith connected became then, (as it could not but occur where so little else was known of the country, and this was a resource promising so well,) a leading element in the calculations of the Puritans. It appears, according to Gov. Winslow, that while their agents were in England in 1618, soliciting of James his consent to their emigration to America, he asked them what profit would accrue to England therefrom, and they—showing their ideas at that time—answered in a single word, "Fishing," which James was pleased to declare an honest trade. The fisheries, it is true, were mainly confined to the coast of New England, and the Puritans eventually determined on a region a little to the south; still it was not known how far along the coast the business might be followed, and, at all events, New England was easily within reach from the proposed point. But it is certain, also, that they had entertained serious thoughts of settling in New England. Smith speaks of their settlement there as designed from the first; and it appears that Weston, an English merchant, who had a leading part in the affair, and was one of those who furnished them the means of reaching

America, advised them to settle in New England, with which he kept up a constant intercourse, offering, as the chief reason, the profit to be derived from the fishery and fish trade. Most of the other merchants who assisted them had also been engaged in adventures to that quarter, and were likely to favor their settlement there. It is probable that they unwillingly changed their intended location to a point farther south only from the dispute in which the Plymouth Company, from which they would have to obtain their charter, was involved. On being carried to New England, they seem at no time to have had any desire to leave it for the place they had purposed occupying.

And as well as profiting by Commerce and manufactures, it was the design of the Puritans to do so in the most enlarged sense. They had no exclusive ideas on this point. The guardianship of a peculiar form of religion and society did not in the least indispose them to a general contact with mankind. It might be supposed, that fleeing from what they considered the vices and errors of the Dutch, they would design, for the very object of carrying out the intention of their removal, to cut off correspondence with Holland. But, on the contrary, they earnestly desired from the outset to maintain intercourse with that country. If Holland had not been deemed a suitable home for them, yet, for a time, it *had* been their selected abode, as affording them a better security and a wider privilege than was to be found in any other part of Europe. If Holland had modes not congenial with their system, and vices which threatened to submerge the principles of their youth, they could not but gratefully remember the toleration there accorded to them—the entire freedom of thought, and of all they claimed in speech and in action. They had lived there long enough, too, to form pleasant relations with many of the Dutch people, which they would not now totally interrupt. The character of the Puritans, likewise, had become known, understood, and respected in Holland, and nowhere could they stand on so favorable relations for trade as with the Dutch merchants. As for the influences they had deprecated, the width of the Atlantic was sufficient to separate them therefrom. The little corrupting element which might be transported among bales, barrels, and boxes, would be ineffectual upon their remote society. Nay, even with the Dutch so near as New York, the Puritan colony, when six years founded, established a commercial treaty, although the offer was prompted by the weakness of the former, and to secure their perpetual neighborhood, seriously advised them, as the means of avoiding the expulsion or conquest which did afterward occur, to effect a purchase of the territory, or some acknowledgment of their right from the English government. With the English, too, for reasons akin to those influencing them in regard to Holland, but yet stronger, they earnestly desired a constant and enlarged communication; and, in short, their desire from the outset was to extend their commercial intercourse to all nations, and to admit all nations to their ports who might be disposed to trade with them. Their ideas indeed on this point were entirely in advance, not of that age only, but of *ours* also. What the effect of their plan, had they been allowed to carry it into full operation, *would* have been upon America, upon England, and upon the world—what the effect of the restraint persistently imposed by the mother government upon this desire *was* toward these all—what the influence still remaining of that unwise policy is upon each of them, we are hereafter to exhibit.

The Puritans easily effected an arrangement with the Virginia Company,

who readily favored them, for a grant within the territory held by that association. But the king was with great difficulty prevailed upon to wink at their heresy, with the proviso of their being quiet and industrious in America. The sagacious monarch would have made them forever *Dutch*, robbing his kingdom of the fine colonial empire they would develop, and perhaps giving it to a rival whose power still equaled, and whose wealth far exceeded that of Britain. Unable to provide for the expense of their removal to, and early wants in America—a burden so weighty in the case of all the other colonies attempted—the Puritans formed an agreement with some London merchants, which, though very severe, they acceded to, as it left them free in point of faith and civil rights. These merchants undertook to furnish the needed means, relying for repayment upon the success mainly of the fisheries and trade. The contract, indeed, especially stipulated that the colonists should themselves engage in the fisheries, and employ others also therein. Until the debt should be liquidated, it was provided that the colonists should throw the produce of their labor in *common stock*, for the benefit of the creditors. This was a system which could not operate well, and had before much repressed the growth of Virginia.

Two vessels were at first obtained, one being bought, the other hired—the *MAYFLOWER*, of 180 tons, and the *Speedwell*, of 60 tons—the latter being intended to enable the emigrants to comply at once with the stipulation in regard to the fishery. Proving unfit, however, for the voyage, the *Mayflower* alone came. Arrived at *Cape Cod*, they found whales so abundant they would have gone to whaling, and could have stored their vessel with £4,000 worth of oil, had they possessed means and implements. Had they been so provided, their whole enterprise might have ended in a fortunate whaling voyage. At all events, the formation of the colony by them would have been greatly endangered. Luckily, they could not supply the want, and so were obliged to look about at once for a place upon which to locate their settlement. Some advocated a place which they called Cold Harbor, as affording superior advantages for both the whale and cod fishery. But, finally, a site inside of Cape Cod promontory was selected, and here was the new *PLYMOUTH* founded, one hundred years after the conquest of Mexico by Cortez, and one hundred and twenty-seven years after the founding of the first Spanish colony in America, at the Island of St. Domingo. Their charter was of no use to them here, the region being without the limits of the Virginia Company—but that was no real misfortune. It is said the captain of the *Mayflower* was bribed by the Dutch to carry them to the north of the Hudson River, where they had contemplated settling; but, if there was any bribery in the case, it strikes us that it was quite as likely made by the very merchants who had furnished them with the means of passage, and some of whom were certainly anxious to have them settle within New England.

In the spring the colonists first met the Indians, and paid them for the corn which they had found buried in the sand. Their intercourse was conducted through Samoset, an Indian, who had been acquainted with the English fishermen at the coast of Maine, and had learned to speak the language through this intercourse. A treaty was formed with Massasoit, Sachem of the Wampanoags, the leading tribe of that region, which was preserved *inviolable for fifty years*. A trade was established, in which for supplies of corn, fish, furs, and skins, they gave the Indians knives, scissors, needles, &c., the articles that were really of most utility to them.

The furs and skins, and some other articles obtained in this traffic, were sent home to England, and sold there for farther supplies.*

The colonists caught some fish for their own use, but were, of course, unable yet to carry out fully the terms of the agreement with the English merchants upon that point, wanting yet both in means and men, and having too many pressing wants requiring their efforts on shore. That their object had not changed, however, is seen in their description of it at about this time—"We are settled for the fishing business and other trade." Ten vessels from England were this year (1621) employed upon the New England coast, not above two or three having been so engaged in any former year.

In the autumn of 1621, the merchants dispatched thirty-five more emigrants to that colony, but hearing that provision was plenty at Plymouth, sent no supplies with them, and even the crew had to be furnished from the small store of the settlers with food sufficient to last them back. The limited resource afforded by the Indians failing with the winter, the settlers were reduced to a half allowance of corn, then to five kernels a day, and finally had none. Having no live stock, either, they were obliged to depend upon wild fowl and wild animals for the rest of the winter.

The Virginia colony at this time was in a very prosperous state. There were eighty plantations or settlements spread out along the banks of the James River, though not extending far back. Sixty more women were sent over in 1621, and the price of wives rose from 120 to 150 pounds of tobacco, the cause being perhaps both an absolute increase in the value of the one article and depreciation in that of the other.

In 1621, the English parliament passed an act providing that "all foreign tobacco shall be *barred*, but that of Virginia or any of the king's dominions shall not be held foreign." Another law was enacted to restrain the inordinate use of tobacco in Great Britain. It enacted that no tobacco should be imported after October 1, 1621, but from Virginia and the Somers' Isles, (the Bermudas, settled about 1610, by Sir George Somers, who was wrecked upon them while bound to Virginia,) and after that day, none was to be planted in England. A customs duty of 6d. a pound was fixed upon the import from Virginia and the Somers' Isles, to compensate the loss the king might sustain in his revenue. The maximum price for the sale in England was fixed at eight shillings the pound, but those selling tobacco by the pipe, might make the most they could. The latter provision was plainly intended to discourage the use of tobacco by the poorer classes, and to make it solely a luxury of the rich. "This is the first instance," says Macgregor, "of the policy of promoting the importation of the produce of the colonies in preference to the produce of foreign states."†

* It has been too much the habit to speak of WILLIAM PENN, as if he alone deserved the credit of their dealing with the Indians, and the New England settlers are usually blamed as especially harsh and unjust toward them. But the uninterrupted subsistence of the most friendly relations for half a century, about two-thirds the duration of Penn's treaty itself, is sufficient evidence of the honorable dealing of the Puritans with the aborigines.

† In 1621, James I. granted to Sir William Alexander a charter giving him right to all of *Acadia* then first called Nova Scotia. Sir William sent out a small colony the same summer, which failed, but gave "a most utopian description of the country." Charles I. confirmed this grant, and added, to it, with singular disregard of former conveyances, all of Canada, and most of what is now the United States; but the knight could neither make good his claim in entirety, nor even effect a settlement at Nova Scotia, which he tried hard to colonize. These were the grants under which the recent claims were set up by Alexander's heirs to Nova Scotia and the fishing grounds, but as Sir William himself sold out his title, we do not understand on what ground, unless by subsequent repurchase. Even in that case, the right, wherever lodged, was invalidated by disuse, and by other later grants made in consequence, covering the same territory.

In 1621, the privilege of trade by license at Hudson River, which the Dutch government had granted for three years past, was supplanted by another monopoly, the *Dutch West India Company*, which was incorporated for twenty-four years from June 3, 1621. The exclusive privilege of trade and settlement was given to this company for the whole western coast of Africa and the whole eastern coast of America, from Newfoundland to Magellan. This was a monopoly of the whole trade of Holland for nearly the whole Atlantic Ocean. The other great ocean was monopolized in like manner by the East India Company, before existing. Within their designated limits, they had nearly absolute power of government over the colonies they might form, and were also authorized to carry on war on their own account with foreign nations, and to form treaties and alliances. The capital stock of the West India Company was at first 7,200,000 guilders, or about \$2,880,000.

The West India Company commenced with towering enterprises. The Dutch being now in course of supplanting the Portuguese in the East Indies, and in hostility with Spain, the company undertook to conquer Brazil, and even to take possession of Peru. These great objects excluded the interests of the humble Hudson River trade from their view, and for two years private individuals, with the approval of the States-General, continued to make adventures thither. The company, however, instituted a government consisting of a Director-General and a council of five, for the small colony there.*

In the Spring of 1622, the Plymouth settlers were reduced to extreme want. Wild fowl failed them in May, and after that time they had no resource but fish. Bass and other fish were plentiful in the streams, but they had not nets strong enough to take them; and although they had some shallows, they were unprovided with tackle necessary for fishing in the open sea. Winslow repaired to the island of Monhegan, where he found about *thirty* sail of English fishermen, to purchase supplies. The fishermen would sell none, but gave liberally of their little stock. Thus, by the fisheries was the colony saved from being broken up.

The "Plymouth Council," although they had been unable to make any settlements in New England, were determined to allow no invasion of their privileges. Claiming full possession of the American waters, as well as the land, from Acadia to the Delaware, (overlying a part of the claim of the Virginia company,) they were excited to the vindication of their right by the private adventures to the New England fishery, in 1621. But notwithstanding their edicts, the number of vessels there from England, in 1622, was increased from ten to *thirty-seven*, of which thirty-five were from the western ports, and two from the city of London. It was not, however, the exclusion of those vessels which the company desired, but to make them a source of revenue, since it had no other. They offered the right of the fishery, on payment of a sum equal to about eighty-three cents a ton. This, for a vessel of forty tons, would have amounted to about thirty-three dollars,

Sir George Calvert, Catholic, established a colony in Newfoundland for the benefit of people of that belief in 1631; but although great sums were expended upon it by Calvert, it soon failed. The colony before alluded to as founded in Newfoundland, still existed, as did also the company in London which established it.

* It was stated by an English writer in 1656, that James I. granted to the Dutch States permission to use a certain island at the Hudson River, called thence *Staten Island*, as a watering place for their West India fleets, and that through this privilege they obtained their footing, and added thereto by encroachments. MacPherson, however, finds no evidence of any such grant. The English claimed all this region under Cabot's discovery.

and on the whole fleet of this year, might have reached \$1,000 or \$1,100.* But the merchants engaged in these enterprises, would neither pay tax nor refrain from the inhibited waters. The spirit of popular liberty, which terminated the next reign by the violent conversion of Britain into a commonwealth, had begun to make formidable exhibitions of its power. It was supported by, and in fact, owed its existence principally to the mercantile class, everywhere the original nucleus of the middle estate of society, and the promoters of public right against monarchial assumption. The Commons' house was fast rising out of its old humility, as a simple granter of taxes to the king, and was becoming used to bold essays for the reduction of the prerogative. The right, hitherto exercised by the crown, of creating monopolies in trade, was unequivocally denied, all the merchants and shopkeepers, except, of course, the few leading ones to whom monopoly charters had been granted, supporting and urging forward the Commons in the effort to wrest this authority from the monarch. The Commons had not, indeed, a clear conception of the mischief arising from monopolies, as is evident from their afterward instituting and protecting them; neither were any of the merchants averse to them where they were themselves interested. But so great a reform as that of transferring the power of creating and regulating these exclusive companies from the king to parliament, was as long a step forward as could be expected of those times.

In regard to the fisheries, those upon the coast of England had been from the earliest times kept open to all subjects, and a right to the same privilege in those of America had obtained a general recognition. No attempt had ever been made to give any association exclusive rights at Newfoundland, although charters for colonies upon the island had been granted, and settlements actually formed under them. At this time, the fisheries were becoming more and more a favorite branch with the English merchants, and as the great Commerce of the Dutch had arisen upon their fisheries, they hoped soon to excel that nation, not only in this pursuit, but in the general Commerce which it would aid so powerfully to build up. The pretensions of the Plymouth Council were deemed utterly outrageous, and to be resisted at all hazards.

The Council complaining to the king of the infringement upon their patent, both by the use of the waters and the traffic of the fishermen with the Indians, James issued a proclamation, commanding that none should frequent the coasts of New England, or traffic with the Indians, but the agents of the company and the colonists sent out by them, or persons having license from them. This edict was ineffectual. The House of Commons boldly insisted on the abrogation of the monopoly, and that the fishery should be free to all subjects. A bill was passed to effect this object, but failed to become a law. The people aroused to the support of the Commons, but the Council, backed by James, gave no heed to the clamor, and quietly endeavored to enforce their claim.

These fishing adventures to New England, like those to Newfoundland, were conducted upon *shares*. The product of the voyage was divided into three equal parts, between the owner, the victualler, the master and seamen. The amount received by the seamen usually, according to Smith, was £17 to

* Mr. Sabine certainly overrates this tax, as well as the size of the vessels, in estimating it at \$100 to each vessel, which would afford an average tonnage of 130 tons to each. Forty tons must have exceeded the average size of them—many could not have exceeded twenty-five tons. A vessel of 120 tons was accounted large.

£20 each for the season, which he says was more than they could earn elsewhere in twenty months. The estimate must be somewhat exaggerated, however; as, had there been so much difference in favor of the New England over the Newfoundland fisheries, the latter would have been abandoned for the former, instead of keeping the lead.

In 1622, Thomas Weston, the merchant before mentioned, attempted to settle a colony, at a place which the settlers called Weymouth, about twelve miles south-east of Boston. But the settlement soon broke up.

The Plymouth Council, unable to make its charter of any other avail, readily disposed of its territory to those who desired to purchase it. In 1622, an association called the "Company of Laconia," composed of merchants of London, Plymouth, Bristol, Dorchester, &c., headed by Sir Ferdinando Gorges and John Mason, leading members of the Council, bought of that body the large tract between the Merrimac and Kennebec rivers, the design of the purchasers being to colonize the region, but with reference almost exclusively to trade. Agriculture was scarcely thought of. The fisheries, the forest, and the Indian traffic, were the great resources to be relied upon. Boats, vessels, and saw-mills, were to be the great agencies which should extract a profit to the company of Laconia, from their possessions.

In 1622, the peace and prosperity of Virginia were arrested by an Indian war; 347 whites were killed in one day, and the settlements were reduced from eighty to eight, by abandonment. The war ended next year, by the Indians being driven far into the wilderness, conquest now replacing the former policy of buying their lands. The war and its effects were in great part due to the imprudent trade of the colonists with the Indians in firearms, ammunition, &c.

The average annual import of tobacco into England from Virginia, for the seven years ending in 1622, was 142,085 pounds. The amount raised in 1622 was 60,000 pounds.

James, desirous that Virginia should turn to the culture of some other staple than tobacco, and become a source of profit not only to the company but to the crown, undertook now, in his superior wisdom, to regulate the industry of the colony. In 1622 he wrote to Lord Southampton, treasurer of the company, "commanding the present setting up of *silk* and the planting of *vines* in Virginia," which he had several times before urged the company to endeavor. He gave strict injunctions that every effort should be used to accomplish this end, repeating his oft assevered repugnance to tobacco. He sent them also instructions upon the silk and vine culture, prepared by Banosil, a Frenchman. The company, hoping both to please the king and profit themselves, obeyed the mandate with zeal. Southampton, not in strict accordance, as Murray says, with his own views, he being of the liberal side, sent out peremptory orders, that "if any one omit the planting of vines and mulberries in an orderly and husbandly manner, they may by a severe censure and punishment be compelled thereunto." The vines of all the southerly parts of Europe, those of Greece last, were tried, and a considerable quantity of mulberry trees were planted. But little wine or silk was produced, and the culture of both was suspended on the dissolution of the company in 1624, tobacco being still the only profitable article for export. The population of Virginia was now about 2,500.

Although the colony was described as latterly prosperous, the company had as yet found it an unprofitable enterprise to themselves. The stock was

still unproductive, and the shares worth little. To render matters worse, the political altercations going on in England were obtruded into the company's affairs, the war of liberal and conservative raging in its meetings.

1623. The Plymouth settlement, in 1623, without relief from abroad, were reduced to a *single boat and a single net*, which were the principal means of their support. This was the last year of their extreme need, although it was two years later before they could reduce land enough under cultivation for their support. They obtained, this year, a patent to *Cape Ann*, as a fishing ground, and granted a right of forming a settlement thereon to some English merchants, engaged in the fishery. It had been usual, of late, owing to the time consumed in the long voyage to the fishing grounds, and thence to Spain, leaving so short a season for fishing, to send double crews, to expedite the catch and preparation of the fares. The merchants in question, having raised a fund of £3,000, bought a vessel of fifty tons, which they sent out this year, thus equipped, with directions on completing the cargo, to leave half the crew at Cape Ann as permanent settlers. The plan so far was executed; but the vessel arrived so late in Spain that the market was preoccupied, and a loss was sustained on the adventure of £800.

To enforce the ordinance which James had issued in their behalf, the Plymouth Council, in 1623, sent over Robert, son of Sir Ferdinando Gorges, as "lieutenant-general" over all New England, and Francis West, bearing the pompous commission of admiral of the seas of New England. But there were this year *forty* sail of fishermen on the coast, from England, being altogether too strong and resolute for the power of the lieutenant-general and the admiral; the attempt ending in only causing a renewed clamor in England for free fishery.

The Laconia company sent out a party in 1623, which settled at the Piscataqua. They engaged at once, and exclusively, in the fishery and the fur trade, and for seven years completed but three or four buildings. The rest of the company, discouraged by the expense and want of returns, soon left the whole of Laconia to Gorges and Mason.

The director-general, officers, and most of the Dutch population of New Amsterdam, (as the settlement on Manhattan Island was called,) lived still within the fort. The West India Company had, however, now resolved on a vigorous colonization of their American possessions. A party was sent out, under Cornelius Mey, who settled on the South river, (the Delaware,) in New Jersey, opposite to the present city of Philadelphia, calling the settlement Nassau. Here they had most amicable intercourse with the Indians; but the colony was soon abandoned, to the great regret of the natives, who long cherished the memory of the just Mey and his associates.

1624. In the year 1624, the Plymouth colony is referred to by Capt. John Smith, as in a prosperous condition. This year, he says, they "freighted a ship of an hundred and fourscore tun, living so well, they desire nothing but more company; and whatever they take, return commodities to the value." The ship was loaded with fish, cured with salt of their own manufacture, and was sent to England. The colony numbered about 180, and was making every effort to extend its fishery, and make it the source of a profitable trade. The merchants who had assisted them, however, were discouraged by the smallness of the returns, and complained loudly. They refused to provide a passage for Robinson and the others, in Holland, and even sent a ship to injure their trade by rivalry. Three heifers and a bull, the first animals brought to New England, were among the imports this year.

The Cape Ann company sent out another vessel, this year, on the same plan as that of last year, which left thirty-two men with those already there, but made, like the other, a losing adventure. The same year, Roger Conant, and some Puritans from England, aided by sundry merchants there, effected a settlement at the same place.

There were fifty English vessels in the New England fishery in 1624. The Plymouth Council, still asserting its claim, was vehemently assailed in Parliament. Sir F. Gorges was summoned before the House of Commons. The Speaker, Sir Edward Coke, addressing him, denounced the attempted monopoly, saying—"If you alone are to pack and dry fish, you attempt a monopoly of the wind and sun." A bill passed both houses revoking the charter of the Plymouth Council, but the king refused it his sanction. The company, however, was powerless, and was obliged to leave the New England seas free.

The trade of England was chiefly carried on at this time by monopolies. There were now in full operation the East India Company, the African Company, (for the slave trade,) and the several American Companies, with those formed under the latter—all these being joint-stock associations. There were also others without a common stock, called regulated companies, viz., the Merchants' Adventurers, Turkey and Eastland (Greenland whaling) Companies. Not one of all these was legally established by act of Parliament; yet they all exercised great powers, and disturbed and often totally obstructed the body of unchartered traders, whom they called interlopers. The English people, that is the independent merchants, shop-keepers, and population of the large towns—for the rural population took yet little concern in politics—were making strong but vain efforts to suppress the leading ones of these associations.

In 1624 the charter of the Virginia Company was declared forfeited, owing to their political altercations. The colony had cost the company £150,000, and 9,000 emigrants had been sent out, of whom but 2,000 were left. The company had raised for the colony's aid £200,000 by subscription, but their hopes had been unrealized. James now issued another proclamation upon *tobacco*, forbidding the export except from Virginia and the Somers Isles, and granting the liberty to these but as a favor, on account of their weakness. He repeated also the prohibition against planting it in Great Britain and Ireland.

1625. Charles I. repeated his father's proclamations against all tobacco but that of Virginia and the Somers Isles, the sale of which, like his father, he attempted to monopolize. Against this latter project of the royal tobacco merchant, Gov. Yeardly, five of the council, and thirty-one burgesses of Virginia, so earnestly remonstrated that Charles desisted.

The Plymouth Colony, in 1625, sent to England two vessels loaded with *fish and furs*. One was captured, near the English coast, by Moorish pirates.

The Cape Ann Company sent over three vessels, and with them twelve cows. The return cargoes of these vessels, like those of the two years preceding, left them a heavy loss. The harbor of Ipswich had become, before this, a noted station for the English fishing vessels.

In 1625 the Commons house passed a bill for the increase of shipping and navigation, and for the freedom to all subjects of fishing on the coasts of Newfoundland, New England, and Virginia. The bill was lost in the Lords. In a declaration of grievances suffered by the English people from his gov-

ernment, which the Commons presented to Charles, and for which redress was required, this matter was enumerated.

About 1625 Charles granted to Sir Robert Heath the territory between 30° and 36° N., called Carolina. Heath effected no settlement, and his patent was afterward made void.*

The West India Company sent to their colony at Manhattan, with a number of settlers, 103 horses and cattle, beside a lot of sheep and hogs, the first animals imported there. A new settlement was also formed by the Dutch at Brooklyn, Long Island.

1626. After much altercation the Plymouth Colony succeeded in purchasing the claims of the English merchants and the Plymouth Council against them. The governor of the colony, and seven other adventurers, agreed to pay £1,800 thus due, in yearly installments of £200, and all other debts of the colony. In return, these eight were to have the monopoly of the trade of the colony for six years, to return then to the company, and were to import yearly hoes, shoes, &c., to the value of £50, to be sold for corn at 6 shillings a bushel. They were to own, also, the shallop and pin-nace *built at Monamet*. The colony was to supply all its wants itself. The common stock arrangement was abandoned, and the property equitably divided among the settlers. Thereafter the progress of the colony was fast. Trade was opened by the colony this year with Monhegan Island, on the coast of Maine, and to other parts of the coast for fish and furs.

The Cape Ann Company in England, discouraged by its heavy losses, was dissolved, and most of the settlers returned to England. A few, with Conant, removed to Naumkeag (Salem) for a better station and better fishing.

The crews of the vessels visiting the coast of Maine for fish and timber began, in 1626, to form settlements at the vicinity of the mouths of the Kennebec and Penobscot.

The Dutch purchased Manhattan Island of the Indians for the value of \$24. Their fur trade, beside reaching up the river and into the Mohawk, and over much of the country near, had extended all along the Sound, into the Connecticut River, and to Narragansett Bay even. A commissioner from New Amsterdam this year effected the treaty with the Plymouth Colony already alluded to. The Dutch invited the Puritans to remove to Connecticut, which offer they declined, advising the Dutch to make themselves secure by a treaty with England, and requesting them also not to send their skiffs to Narragansett Bay for beaver skins.†

1627. Gov. Bradford complains that the English vessels began to leave fishing on the New England coast, and fell wholly to trading there, to the detriment, as he says, of the Plymouth Colony. A few single vessels were sent over to fish, but most of them were connected with establishments in New England. The cause of this abandonment of the fisheries here was the great superiority of the Newfoundland fishery, after all that had been said to the contrary; many of the voyages to New England had, indeed, of late, proved losing adventures. So the right maintained against the Plymouth Council proved of little avail when secured, except to prevent a like effort to monopolize the other fishing grounds of America.

* The English, in 1625, settled St. Christopher's, a West India island. The year before James granted Barbadoes, the most easterly West India island, to the Earl of Marlborough.

† In 1626 the Dutch settled Berbice, in Guiana. They also took San Salvador and the region around, in an attempt to conquer Brazil, and acquired there much wealth. War followed against Holland by Portugal and Spain.

Charles I. confirmed Sir William Alexander's patent to Nova Scotia, and created an order of *baronets* for that province.

To push their colonial empire in America, the French government created two companies in 1627, one for colonizing North America, the other the Antilles. They were projected by Richelieu, then Superintendent-General of Commerce and Navigation and High-Admiral of France. The first, called the Company of New France, consisted of one hundred merchants, with a capital of 600,000 livres, equal to about \$108,000. It had the perpetual grant of all French North America, including Canada, Acadia, the Lake and Mississippi region, and even Florida, to which France laid claim—political supremacy within these territories being, however, reserved by the king, and the exclusive privilege of Commerce limited to fifteen years. In the cod and whale fishery their rights were equal only to those of other subjects, the French and English following the same policy on this point, except that the English had granted the Greenland whalery to an exclusive company. The company engaged to send 300 tradesmen to Canada, and supply them for three years with food, lodging, clothing, and implements, and also to settle there 6,000 French inhabitants before 1643. The other company had the right of exclusive trade with the Antilles, and were to pay for their privilege 100 lbs. tobacco or 50 lbs. cotton for each settler of 16 to 60 years.*

For several years past the English had employed at Newfoundland about 250 vessels, of a total of about 15,000 tons, and 5,000 persons. The yearly estimated profit was £135,000 sterling, contrasting remarkably with the results of their commercial efforts upon the American continent.†

1628. A Dutch bark arrived from New Amsterdam at Plymouth, and a trade was thus begun between the two colonies, which continued several years. The Dutch sold the Puritans linens, stuffs, and other articles, and received in return fish and corn, and it is stated also *tobacco*.

The government of the Plymouth Colony made complaint to the Council in England against Thomas Morton, for carrying on an independent trade with the Indians. The same complaint was also preferred against the English fishing vessels, which made of the fishery a mere pretense for the purpose of trading all kinds of arms to the Indians. Some of the planters also had resorted to the same course. The aid of Gorges was solicited to stop this abuse.

Sir Henry Roswell, Sir John Young, and other gentlemen purchased of the Plymouth Council the territory between Charles and Merrimack Rivers. The patent specified the object of the purchasers, as in other cases, to be trade and settlement. Some London gentlemen, among whom were Winthrop and Saltonstall, became associated in the new company, and were af-

* Champlain was continued governor of Canada, and between the quarrels of the Catholics and Huguenots, the Indian war, and the bad management of the company, it required all his genius to keep the colony even in existence. Both these companies ruined their own interests by their rapacity. In the islands colonized by the Antilles Company, a contraband trade soon sprung up with the Dutch for merchandise and provisions, which the company sent out from France at enormous prices.

† In 1627, the French and English being at war, the former sent a force to take possession of Newfoundland and the Fishing Banks. The English vessels, however, went out under protection, and many of them armed, some carrying 20 guns, and 100 men.

Sir William Alexander sent out a few armed vessels to Nova Scotia. On the way they captured a French fleet of transports, with stores, and 135 pieces of ordnance for Quebec and Port Royal, the latter having been partially re-established since Argel's expedition, but it was again reduced by Alexander's fleet.

The English settled Barbadoes, their second West India island. The Dutch East India Company's dividend, in 1627, was 45 per cent, the highest they ever made. Adventure to the East was thus still far more profitable than to the West.

terward sole patentees. Mathew Cradock, a wealthy London merchant, was appointed the first governor of the company. John Endicott, with 200 emigrants, in six vessels, was sent over, and settled at Salem, where Conant was still, with a few others. A part of the party settled at Charlestown.

Charles Levett, who had visited New England in 1628, published in 1628 "A Voyage in New England," relating to her fishing interest. He recommended fixed stations on the coast by the crews of the vessels sent out, by which, beside taking double the fish, they could expend seven months in the year in labor upon shore.

For the four years ending 1628, under the possession of the Dutch West India Company, the exports from Manhattan were \$68,000, and the imports \$45,000. The colony was yet small, and most of the settlers were in the employ of the company, which was too much employed at present in its profitable forays against the Spaniards to pay much attention to this humble trading establishment.*

1629. The West India Company turned its attention at last to the vigorous colonization of the New Netherlands, as its North American possessions were called, promising, in 1629, extensive grants of land and manorial titles to all persons who should transport fifty emigrants as tenants upon their own manors, purchasing the land from the Indians. The privilege of having negro slaves was also granted them. Under the offer thus made, four directors of the West India Company, distinguished by the title of *patrons*, made large purchases on both the Hudson and Delaware Rivers. One of them, named Godyn, obtained from the Indians the southern half of the present State of Delaware.

The company which had purchased the region between the Merrimack and Charles Rivers obtained, in March, a charter from Charles I., incorporating them as the "Governor and Company of the Massachusetts Bay in New England." The charter, among other things, very particularly secured the full liberty of all English subjects in any of the seas, arms of the sea, and salt water rivers of the colony, as well as that of drying, keeping, and packing fish on the lands adjoining. The population of the colony this year was 506; among the imports from England were 115 cattle, some horses, and 41 goats.

From some instructions sent by the Massachusetts Company to its agents in the colony in 1629, it appears that *a vessel had already been built in the colony*. The company direct that if they send the ships to fish at the banks, expecting not to return again to the plantation, they send also "our bark that is already built in the country."

Rev. John Wheelwright bought of the Indians all the tract between the Merrimack and the Piscataqua, being within Gorges and Mason's grant. This purchase was the occasion of great contention for years afterward.†

1630. Fifteen ships, with about 1,500 emigrants were sent to Massachusetts Bay Colony in 1630—this great emigration being due to a revival of religious persecution in England. These people founded Bosron, Dorchester, Roxbury, Cambridge, and Watertown.

* The Dutch West India Company in 1628 divided *fifty per cent* to their proprietors, their great success being occasioned chiefly by the capture of a Spanish fleet loaded with plate, and valued at 12,000,000 guilders, (\$4,800,000), and by the plunder of another Spanish squadron on the coast of Peru.

† 1629. An English fleet, under Sir David Kirke, appearing before Quebec, which was in a very reduced state, Champlain surrendered.

Rev. Mr. Higginson, of Salem, in a narrative published about this time, described the region occupied by this colony as "a wonderment, outstripping the increase of Egypt, yielding from thirty to sixty fold; the ears of corn nowhere so great and plentiful." The wealth of the waters he described as every way equal—whales, grampuses, mackerel, codfish, bass, salmon, scate, thornbacks, lobsters, turbot, sturgeon, cusk, haddocks, mullets, eels, crabs, muscles, and oysters, in endless numbers. This account produced a great impression in England, where the spirit of emigration was then so rife.

The expense of emigration from England to Massachusetts Bay was estimated in 1630, for each person, as follows:—

Provisions.....	£7 11 8	Arms.....	£2 0 0
Apparel.....	3 8 6	Fishing implements	0 10 1
Tools.....	0 17 6		
Building implements.....	3 0 0	Total.....	£17 7 9

The Plymouth Council, in 1630, disposed of the soil of Connecticut to Lords Say-and-Seal, Brooke, and other persons. The same year, Winslow and others of the Plymouth Colony projected a settlement within the State of Connecticut, whither the Indians there, with whom they had had some intercourse, invited them.

Trade had been established before this by Plymouth Colony with the Indians in Narragansett Bay. The Indians set apart Prudence Island (now within the State of Rhode Island) as a trading ground.

Hemp and flax, afterward so much encouraged in America by the English government, were growing in the New England colonies at this time.

In 1630 settlements were made at Cape Porpoise, near the Kennebec River, and at other points in Maine. A fishing establishment had also been set up by some English merchants at the site of the city of Portland.

The prospect of *wine*, so much desired in Virginia, was quite flourishing, and several French *vignerons* were imported to make it better; but it is said their bad management ruined the vineyards.

Charles issued another proclamation on *tobacco*, repeating the burden of his former edicts thereon, and also re-assuming the monopoly of its sale in Great Britain, restricting the import to the single port of London, and asserting his purpose of limiting annually the amount of the importation.*

In 1631 a vessel of about thirty tons, owned by Gov. Winthrop, was built in Massachusetts, being launched on the fourth of July. She was called the "Blessing of the Bay," being intended chiefly for fishing, but served to keep up intercourse with different parts of the coast of the colony, and also made some trading voyages to the Dutch settlement at the Hudson River.

The court of assistants in Massachusetts ordered that *corn* should be legal

* Sir William Alexander, failing in his efforts to colonize Nova Scotia, sold all his right, in 1630, to Claud de la Tour, a French Protestant residing in England, having been captured by Alexander's fleet, in the transports before alluded to. Claud's son, Etienne, held a fort for France at Cape Sable, which he declined yielding to his father for England.

Some French and English adventurers, in 1630, fleeing from St. Christopher's, captured the small island of La Tortue, near Hayti, and a part of them, using this island as a depot, became famous in the West India seas afterward as corsairs.

In seven years the Dutch had taken nearly all of Pernambuco province, though defended by 46 ships and 3,000 soldiers, beside other provinces in Brazil. During the war the Dutch took 547 ships fitted out against them from Spain, and acquired by captures on the American coast 45,000,000 florins, (about \$18,000,000.)

Bubbles were plentiful in England in 1630. Anderson enumerates a long list of bubble projects now chartered by Charles. Some of these referred to America.

About now Seiden (English) and Grotius (Dutch) were disputing about the dominion of the sea, the former claiming that the sea could be held as exclusive property of a single nation, the latter asserting its unrestricted freedom to all nations.

tender for the payment of all debts, at its usual price, unless money were expressly stipulated.

The Plymouth Council in 1631 made its eighth and last grant of territory in New England. The patent gave to Aldworth and Elbridge, two merchants of Bristol, England, several thousand acres of land at Pemaquid Point, in Maine, all the islands, including Monhegan, and exclusive right of fishing in the waters within 27 miles of the shore belonging to them. The grant lying east of Gorges' territory was within the French claim. Sabine says this was the last patent ever issued by any authority whatever, conferring the privilege of exclusive use of any American waters.*

Godyn, the Dutch patroon, whose purchase was within the State of Delaware, sent De Vries, with thirty settlers, in 1631. The settlement was established near Cape Henlopen, and the region was called Zwanendel, or the Valley of Swans. The Dutch claimed now from Cape Henlopen to Cape Cod.

The country near the head of Chesapeake Bay was early explored by the Virginians, and a valuable trade in furs was established with the Indians of that region. In 1631 William Clayborne, a man of resolute and enterprising spirit, and of large property, who had been first sent out by the London Company as a surveyor, obtained from the king a license for exclusive traffic at this place with the Indians. The license was confirmed by a commission from the governor of Virginia, and under it Clayborne perfected several trading establishments which he had already partly set up, acknowledging the jurisdiction of Virginia. One of these was on the Island of Kent, the largest island in the Chesapeake, having an area of about 45 square miles, and being nearly opposite the present city of Annapolis. He had another at the head of the bay, near the mouth of the Susquehannah River.

1632. The population of Maine at this time was about 1,000, all of them being upon the coast, and mostly fishermen. Trelawney and Goodyear's establishment at Richmond Island (near Portland) soon became a noted station, several vessels being annually loaded there with fish, on account of the proprietors.

The Indians exterminated the Dutch colony on the Delaware.†

1633. Reports being less favorable from Massachusetts in 1631-2, emigration had declined, but the accounts of 1633 again stimulated it. Gov. Winthrop laments that the high wages paid, 2s. 6d. sterling a day, led to idleness and dissipation.

Among the laws of Massachusetts adopted near this time were statutes forbidding all persons to receive *interest* upon money loaned, to wear apparel too costly for their estates, and prohibiting gaming.

A vessel was built at Boston in 1633, called the "Trial."

* In 1631 Capt. John Smith published his last work on New England, giving an account of "the yearly proceedings of this country in fishing and planting;" from 1614, the date of his first voyage thither, to 1630. The same year he died in London, aged 52.

† Capt. Fox was sent by Charles I., and Capt. Thomas James by Bristol merchants, to discover the north-west passage to China.

‡ The war in Europe was ended in 1632 by the treaty of St. Germain. Charles, who had married a princess of France, was not indisposed to make concessions to that power, and was glad to end the war on almost any terms, owing to the trouble encountered while prosecuting it from his refractory parliament. He resigned to France again the right to Quebec, Acadia, and Cape Breton Island, Louis agreeing to pay 82,700 livres for skins, furs, knives, &c., property of English traders found by the French at Quebec, which they had lately re-taken. The Company of New France began now to extend its establishments in Canada, but quarrels between the leading traders of the colony about the fur trade hindered its prosperity.

In 1632 the English settled Montserrat, and the Dutch Curacao, West India Islands.

A vessel, with a cargo of fish and furs, was dispatched from Boston to Virginia, probably the first such adventure. She was wrecked at the capes of the Chesapeake.

The population of Plymouth was 396.

Wouter Van Twiller, the Director-General of the New Amsterdam Colony, in order to anticipate the attempt from Plymouth Colony, in Connecticut, purchased of the Indians, this year, lands about 60 miles up the Connecticut or Fresh River, at what is now the city of Hartford. Here a fortified trading house was erected, within the present limits of the city, called the "House of Good Hope." In October, a party from Plymouth having come round by sea in a small sloop, passed the station in disregard of a threat to fire upon them, and established a trading house, as the nucleus of a settlement, seven miles above, at Windsor. Van Twiller protested, but in vain.

Charles issued three proclamations upon *tobacco*—one prohibiting, very strictly, its sale in Great Britain by any other than reputable, substantial traders. It was not to be at all sold by keepers of taverns, ale-houses, inns, victualling houses, strong-water sellers, &c. Another repeated former regulations, and a third re-asserted and increased the privilege of his pre-emption. As the tobacco trade became profitable, and the king's revenue enlarged therefrom, the royal reflections upon the malignity of the weed became less severe. Before this, it had been deemed expedient to allow the import from the Caribbees, as well as from Virginia and the Somer Isles. The dingy shrub was plainly working itself into favor—not merely with the people, so easily converted into chewers, smokers, and snuffers, but with the most powerful and violent enemy it had yet encountered, whose hostility had seemed invincible. While royal lips and royal olfactories disdained as much as ever the contamination of its pungent humor, it appealed to royal cupidity by its respectable and ever-growing availability as a financial assistant of the government, in a time when the tax-granters and tax-payers were getting too chary of their "rascal counters." It promised to become an efficient tax-agent for the exchequer, among a people who had obstinately demurred to other forms and authorities, and if it poisoned the subjects, the king may now have begun to reflect it only properly punished them for the presumption of resisting his own divine right to exercise arbitrary disposal of all their properties.

Art. II.—MERCANTILE BIOGRAPHY.

ERASTUS BRIGHAM BIGELOW.

To an extent unknown before, our age beholds the power of scientific discovery and mechanical invention. We are beginning to appreciate their importance, and to honor the men of genius and toil to whom the great results are due. We confess that they should rank with the benefactors of the race. Why, indeed, should they not stand among the foremost of that illustrious band?

Let us look into this small cell. It is the chemist's laboratory. A few fluids and powders, some crucibles, flasks, and test-tubes, a trough, a lamp,

and a pair of scales, constitute its furniture. What can seem more insignificant? Yet with means so simple, that calm philosopher unlocks the secrets of nature. There he analyzes, weighs, measures, reasons, and combines. His labors are silent, yet their result may ring through the world. It may give fresh impulse to the streams of Commerce, may even turn them into new channels, and tell at length with unquestioned power on national destiny and human progress.

Take another case. In his still, lonely, perhaps dark chamber, sits one in deep reverie. Can it be that *his* thoughts, his *dreams* are of the slightest consequence to mankind? Yes—for that dreamer is Arkwright, or it is Watt, or Stephenson, or Fulton, or Whitney, or Morse? His is a nobler study than any arts of diplomacy or of war. Cams and cogs, levers, valves, wheels, are the tools with which he works. A machine is in the process of construction by and within that most wonderful of all machines, the human brain. At present it is only an ideal form, a mechanical phantom. But soon we shall see it embodied in iron. Fire, air, water, will be summoned to impel it. It will become a creature endued with life and power. A fairy, nimble and untiring, it will spin, knit, weave the world's clothing. A giant, at once obedient and beneficent, he will yoke each elemental force to his barge and car. Time and space, wind and wave, the earth and the air, frost, fire, the dreaded thunderbolt itself, will all bow before the wand of genius, and swell his peaceful triumphs.

Why should such a man be less prized than the warrior who rescues his country from oppression—than the statesman who lays broad and deep the foundations of empire—or than the patriot orator whose glowing words of counsel or remonstrance have saved that empire in some hour of peril? If the provinces of discovery and invention make a less imposing show than those of war, of statesmanship, and of eloquence, they have certainly a wider range and longer duration. The benefits conferred by science and art (whatever may be said of the original honor) belong to no particular nation. They cannot long be confined within geographical lines. They are as lasting as time itself.

We propose to give some account of an eminent inventor. We do this, not merely to make better known to his countrymen one of whom they may justly be proud; not merely as presenting to minds philosophically disposed a study instructive and curious; but especially as a remarkable instance of struggle, and perseverance, and final success. Let youth, conscious of talent, ambitious, but repressed by penury, read and take courage. We shall not apologize for entering into some minuteness of detail. Incidents, in themselves trifling, become instructively interesting when seen to be indications of individuality—the tokens and first steps, however faint, of a distinguished career.

The subject of this notice was born April 2d, 1814, in West Boylston, a small town of Massachusetts, seven miles north of Worcester. His father had a little farm, to the toils of which he added, with Yankee versatility, the business of a wheelwright and that of a chair-maker. The boy was sent, of course, to the district school. At the age of eight he asked his master to put him into arithmetic and writing, but he was pronounced too young for these high branches. He was not, however, to be headed off so. He took up Pike's Arithmetic at home, performed, unassisted, every question as far as the Rule of Three, and made a fair record of the whole. Who does not see in this a promising outset?

But his school and his arithmetic engrossed only a fraction of his time. His boyish activities showed early a mechanical tendency. With minute fence of regular post and rail he inclosed a few yards of ground. This was *his* little farm. There might be seen a plow, a cart, a wagon complete in every part, with other implements of husbandry, all of his own making, and of a size to match. His live stock was a litter of kittens. To carry out his idea, he must set them to work; a yoke was made, and two of these small steers were attached to the cart. Finding that they insisted on pulling backward, he turned their heads toward the cart. The wheels now went forward, but the team could not be guided; the experiment consequently failed.

Not content with being a farmer and a wheelwright, he went into the chair line. Having made a chair-back, he so finified it with paint and bronze and gold, that folks looked on with wonder, and predicted that the boy was destined to become a great painter.

He contrived to get a violin, and it was not long before he could execute with facility the then popular airs of "Bounding Billows," and "Away with melancholy." This was a new phase. His career, evidently, was to be a musical one. Kind neighbors even suggested that he might hope ere long to find high and profitable employment in the orchestra of the Boston Museum, consisting at that time, if we remember rightly, of a fiddle and a hand-organ.

John Temple, a neighbor of Mr. Bigelow, was a substantial farmer. He had noticed the lad's capacity, and sometimes jokingly asked him to come and live with him, and learn *his* occupation. Erastus regarded this proposition as a business matter. With him, an offer was an offer. Accordingly, one Monday morning in early spring, this boy of ten years presented himself at Mr. Temple's door and demanded employment. It was given him, with no expectation that he would continue through the day. He worked on, however, and at the end of the week suggested to Mr. T. that it would be proper to come to some understanding in regard to wages. On being asked his terms, he offered to work six months on condition of receiving at the close, a cosset lamb called "Dolly," to which he had taken a strong liking. The moderate demand was of course acceded to. But scarcely had a month elapsed ere a difficulty rose. Dolly could not live without eating, and how was he to provide for her? His fellow laborers discovered the cause of his anxiety, and teasingly aggravated it. At length he proposed and effected an alteration in the contract. He relinquished his claim to Dolly, and Mr. T. agreed to furnish, instead, a pair of cow-hide boots, and sheeps gray cloth sufficient for a suit of clothes. The agreement was fully carried out on both sides. At the close of the period, an offer of four dollars a month for the ensuing summer was made and accepted. The kind-hearted man, at parting, gave the young farmer a silver dollar.

During the next two years he continued to work for Mr. Temple in the summer, and to attend school in winter. The farmer urged him to stay till he should be of age, and he offered to do so if, at the close of the term, he could receive in compensation a small outlying farm belonging to his employer. Fortunately, this offer was declined. It was an escape not unlike that of Daniel Webster from the clerkship of the county court.

In 1827 Mr. Bigelow removed to another part of the town, and engaged in the manufacture of cotton yarn. Erastus was set to work in the mill. So long as he found anything to study in the machinery and its working, he was interested; the occupation then became distasteful. While employed

in this drudgery of tending spindles, he was busy in framing plans for the future. His grand desire was to obtain a liberal education. As his parents, from their limited circumstances, could not encourage him in this, he began to consider in what way he might accomplish the object himself. He already knew how to earn and to save. He had not only clothed himself by his toil, but to his first silver dollar had added several more. Like Goldsmith, he now turned his musical talents to account. In a community where critical connoisseurship was unknown, he passed for an accomplished performer. At all balls and dancing parties for many miles around his services were in request. After a long day of spinning, how tedious must have been a whole night of fiddling! Often, doubtless, his eyelids grew heavy and his arm a-weary. Who can think of the motive which nerved that arm, without respect for the young violinist?

About this time he made his first invention. It was a hand-loom for weaving suspender webbing. It accomplished the object; but as the business would not justify the employment of an operative, he abandoned it, after realizing from it a few dollars. His next invention was of more importance. A ball of cotton cord, known in the market by the name of "piping cord," had been brought into the house for domestic use. On examination, he found it to be of yarn like that which he was spinning every day. On inquiry, he learned that it was made by hand, in the ordinary rope-walk. He was sure that it could be formed more expeditiously and cheaply by automatic machinery. In a few weeks he had matured the plan of a machine, and within two months he had it in successful operation. It worked well—earning for the youthful inventor in the course of a year about one hundred dollars. At length the article fell greatly in price, and the working of the machinery was abandoned.

These first developments of a peculiar genius were evidently called forth by his burning desire for an education. They were temporary expedients to enable him to pay his way. It should not be forgotten that they were the achievements of a lad only fourteen years of age. Having now by his industry and ingenuity acquired a small fund, he obtained parental consent to attend a neighboring academy, at his own expense. This was in 1830. Here he entered on the study of Latin. His teacher was pleased, and wrote to the father, recommending a collegiate course for the boy. But to the cautious parent, a trade seemed safer and better. As the son preferred not to engage again in the dull employment of the spinning mill, the matter was compromised, and he was told that he might go to Boston and become a commission merchant, if he could.

To Boston accordingly he went. He carried no letters—knew no one. After a few inquiries from door to door, he found employment in the wholesale and retail dry-goods establishment of S. F. Morse & Co. The firm was highly respectable, and the place was deemed a good one. But the charm of novelty was soon over, and then the occupation of measuring and selling ribbons and calicoes seemed petty and monotonous. He felt, he knew, that he was made for something beyond *that*. The idea of a college course still haunted him. On one occasion he walked out to Cambridge, and had a talk with President Quincy. It only served to show that there was no chance yet for him.

About this time a teacher of stenography came to Boston and gave lessons in the art. He drew much attention and formed large classes. Our young clerk shared in the general interest, but the cost of a course (ten dol-

lars,) was beyond his means. So he got some books and taught himself. He was surprised to find the art so simple. In a few days he could write with ease in short-hand. A new thought struck him. If he could learn stenography in this way so quickly and easily, why should not others—why should not many avail themselves of the useful, labor-saving process? The rareness of the acquirement must be owing to the expense. He would obviate that. He would write a book on short hand, illustrated by plates, and filled with rules and examples. Energetic and industrious—to resolve, with him, was to act. In a short time his work—"The self-taught Stenographer"—was ready for the press. To prosecute this new enterprise, he relinquished his post behind the counter, much to the regret of his parents, who naturally questioned the expediency of the step, and to that of his employers, too, whom he had fully satisfied.

Having printed a small edition of his work he became his own bookseller, and in ten days sold seventy-five dollars' worth in Boston alone. This greatly encouraged him. Forgetting that Boston was peculiar and prepared ground, he regarded his sales there as an exponent of the national demand, and immediately ordered a large impression of the work. To meet the extensive business now opening upon him he took a partner, a medical student, who was anxious to see a little of the world before he settled down as a professional drudge. The young doctor was to pay the entire cost of printing, to share equally in the labor and expense of distribution and sale, and to receive one-half of the profits. These hopeful adventurers set out at once upon their commercial travels. They visited the most inviting portions of New England, New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania. Here the cholera, then on its first terrible march through America, put a stop to their journeyings. They went home, having made about a hundred dollars. Four hundred dollars were still due the printer, a large part of the edition was yet on hand, and all the best ground had been canvassed. It looked decidedly dark. Young Bigelow without hesitation released his discouraged partner from the pecuniary obligation.

Behold him now at the age of eighteen. His little educational fund has vanished, all his schemes have failed, and he is four hundred dollars in debt. His father, in the mean time, had been extending and diversifying his business. He had formed a partnership with the celebrated "John Smith," and a new mill had been erected for their operations. As the old mill now stood idle, Erastus thought that he might turn it to some account. In this project he found a person willing to join him. John Munroe was the name of his second associate. Their business was the manufacture of twine. It was beginning to be moderately successful, when a disagreement between Smith and his partner put a stop to the operations of the younger firm.

Bigelow & Munroe then undertook to run a cotton factory in Wareham, a place in the eastern part of Massachusetts. At the end of nine months this arrangement terminated in a loss. As author and as manufacturer, he was now obligated to the extent of fourteen hundred dollars. In Massachusetts his way seemed completely hedged up. But Massachusetts is not the only place in the world. Soon after this we find our hero in the city of New York, taking lessons in penmanship of the renowned Professor Bristow. His improvement astonishes even himself. A dozen exercises have transformed a poor writer into an accomplished penman. Then, for some time, he supported himself by teaching the art. Newark, and several other large towns in New Jersey and on the North River, enjoyed the benefit of

his instructions. But he was not the person to be content with such a life. Indeed, he soon became deeply dissatisfied with that and with himself. An important period of his existence was passing away in desultory and unprofitable efforts. He was conscious of powers that needed discipline only to insure him success. His literary aspirations returned in full force. But, alas! what could he do?

In this state of mind he returned home. His parents received him kindly, but could not suppress their anxiety concerning his future. In that humble family council many plans were started and rejected. At length, with unanimous approval, the youth resolves to become a physician. After a winter passed in classical studies at Leicester Academy, he entered his name as a student in medicine. This study he prosecuted with diligence for more than a year, being much interested in the science, but constantly annoyed by a sense of his imperfect literary preparation. Even then, could he but find the means, he would go back, to start anew and aright. Again the stimulus of this early and strong desire put him on the look-out for some source of pecuniary gain. With his mind in this state he happened, while on a visit, to sleep under a knotted or Marseilles quilt. Years before he had seen similar fabrics woven by the slow and costly process of the hand-loom. Why—he now asked himself—could not a power-loom be made to weave them? It was not until a year afterwards that he set himself in earnest to solve this problem. Having suspended, for a time, his medical studies, he matured the plan of a loom. With some pecuniary aid he was enabled to construct the machine, which worked to the satisfaction of all.

But to prosecute the enterprise, capital must be had. In quest of this he went to Boston. A sample of the fabric was shown to Messrs Freeman, Cobb & Co., who were large importers of the article. Satisfied that it must succeed, they entered at once into an agreement, contracting to pay all expenses thus far incurred, to be at the cost of patents for this country and for England, and to erect and furnish a mill that should meet all probable demands of the market. In consideration of his contribution, the inventor was to receive, free of expense to himself, one-quarter of the profits. A brighter day had, at length, dawned on the struggling youth. He had reached the position so long sought. He could now secure a thorough education. Accordingly he renewed his studies under the care of a clergyman, who was in the habit of fitting young men for college. Must we state that even this fair prospect was soon clouded? Freeman, Cobb & Co. failed in business. The period was one of commercial depression, and was, therefore, no time to raise capital for new enterprises. To increase his embarrassments, his father had been unsuccessful in his affairs, and was now in declining health. His own position and his sense of filial duty, left him no alternative. The sternly exacting present must be provided for. Postponing to an indefinite future his half-realized schemes and hopes, he once more relinquished his classical studies.

While, to meet the exigency, he was earnestly considering the question of "ways and means," an incident of travel recurred to his memory. In his stenographic journeying he had accidentally witnessed the process of weaving coach-lace. At the time, he had felt no interest in the matter—had taken no note of the details. He only remembered that hand-loom were employed. With this recollection, the idea of a power-loom immediately presented itself. Two days' study convinced him that the thing could be done. But another point must also be settled: would it pay? He was

wholly unacquainted with the character and extent of the coach lace business. Hiring of a neighboring farmer his work-horse and old yellow-bodied chaise, he starts, with characteristic promptness, on a tour of inquiry. The carriage makers of Worcester, Grafton, Framingham, Medway, and Dedham, were successively visited and interrogated. The result was a general reference to Messrs. Fairbanks, Loring & Co., of Boston, venders of the article, with whom these mechanics all dealt. Into Boston, accordingly, went the yellow chaise. Messrs. Fairbanks & Co. settled every doubt. A coach-lace power-loom, they said, would certainly do well; but the thing had been often considered by the principal lace-makers, and pronounced an impossibility. They expressed a wish to join with him in case of his succeeding—though, as they afterwards confessed, without the slightest faith in the project.

Mr. Bigelow went home, and with no other guide or help than a piece of coach-lace, set himself to the accomplishment of a task, which, up to that time had been deemed impossible. Spurred on by necessity, and encouraged by a confident hope of success, his mind became intensely active. To others, indeed, he seemed to have grown suddenly stupid. When spoken to, he appeared to listen, and yet showed by his silence or inapposite reply, that he had not understood a word. One evening he was asked to show a visitor the way out. To the surprise of the latter, he took an unlighted candle, marched silently before him through a long, dark entry, and gravely bowed him from the door. During this period of mental abstraction, he took no note of time. He sat in the family circle with as little share in the conversation as if he had been deaf and dumb. All hints about bed-time were thrown away upon him, and the unmoved candle-stick, whose taper had expired in its socket, usually showed in the morning that he must have gone off to his rest, at some late hour, in the dark.

The fruits of this extraordinary application soon appeared. Within six weeks from the time of its first conception, he had a power-loom in successful operation. Let any one examine this beautiful and complicate piece of mechanism, in which iron seems to act like an intelligence, and exhibits a dexterity, which human fingers scarcely surpass. Let him consider that this machine involved all the essential principles of a far more important one—the Brussels carpet loom; that the inventor was a young man not twenty-three years old, who had never even looked into a treatise on mechanics; and finally, that all this was accomplished in the brief space of forty days; and he will, at least, allow that the history of useful art exhibits few such instances of mental and executive efficiency.

Thus far we have traced, with some particularity, the ardent aspirings, the varied efforts, the successive struggles and disappointments of a poor but persevering youth. It shows what may be accomplished by high aims, a fixed purpose, and resolute industry. It will appeal to the warm sympathies of those who love to contemplate the development of mind and character under a discipline of hardship. We have followed a rivulet from its mountain spring. Obstacle after obstacle has opposed its progress. But above, or round, or through them all, it has still forced its way. In one bright flash it has just leaped over the last wall of rock. It becomes a deep, broad river: its banks widen out and wave with fertility. But we must not be disappointed, if we miss, henceforth, the picturesqueness of its upper course.

The complete success of the coach-lace loom brought the inventor at once into notice. Fairbanks, Loring & Co. of Boston, John Wright of Worces-

ter, Israel Langley of Shirley, together with the inventor and his brother Horatio, united for the purpose of building and running the looms. This association afterwards became the "Clinton Company." Mr. B. was now in a condition to carry out his early and long-cherished, though often frustrated wish in regard to education. But the time for that scheme had, he felt, gone by. He had become better acquainted with the nature and measure of his own capacities. He saw opening before him a career of activity, success, and usefulness. To this, accordingly, he resolved to devote his future life.

Soon after the Clinton Company began its operations in Lancaster, the affairs of Freeman, Cobb & Co., had become so far adjusted as to liberate from its legal embarrassments the counterpane loom. One of the firm immediately contracted with the inventor on terms highly favorable to the latter for a number of the looms. But Mr. Bigelow happening soon after to be in New York, saw there a new and different species of counterpane then just introduced from England. An examination of this fabric convinced him not only that it would be more marketable than the knotted counterpane, but that it could be made at less cost. With a disinterestedness hardly less rare than his ingenuity, he advised Mr. Roberts to give up the contract, and thus lay aside entirely the very curious and perfectly successful loom already made. He at the same time agreed to invent a power-loom for weaving this new fabric. Within six months from that time he had such a loom in successful operation. A small mill in Lancaster was filled with the machinery, and the business, steadily prosperous, has remunerated the inventor and enriched others.

After starting the coach-lace and counterpane establishments, Mr. Bigelow took up the question of weaving the ingrain or Kidderminster carpet by means of power-loom. It was no easy matter to produce a fabric in which the figures should match, which should have a smooth even face and perfect selvedge, and do this with a rapidity so much beyond that of the hand-loom as to make it an object. The hand-loom weaver can, to some extent, meet these conditions by the exercise of his judgment. If the shuttle has not fully done its work, he can give the weft-thread a pull with his fingers. If, on measuring, he finds that the figure is getting to be too long, or too short, he remedies the fault by putting either more or less force to the lathe, as he beats up. If he perceives that the surface of the cloth is becoming rough, he regulates the tension of the warps. By the exercise of constant vigilance, skill, and judgment, he can *approximate* to the production of a complete and regular fabric. But how shall these properties be imparted to inert matter? How shall iron be taught to observe, to judge, and to vary its action with such modifications as the case may require?

To the achievement of this seeming impracticability our inventor now addressed his extraordinary powers of analysis and concentration. A short study assured him that the idea was feasible. On the strength of this conviction—before he had made a model or even complete drawings of the machine—he entered into a written contract with a company in Lowell, to furnish them with power-loom for making ingrain carpets. His first loom for two-ply carpets was set up within a year. In the matching of its figures, in evenness of surface, and in the regularity of its selvedge, its product far surpassed that of any hand loom. Its average daily work was from ten to twelve yards; that of the hand-loom is about eight yards.

He *must*, he *could*, do better than that. A second loom, with various

modifications and improvements were long produced. By this the daily product was raised to eighteen yards. Still he was not satisfied. A third machine, with essential variations, at length appeared. This loom made, with perfect ease, from twenty-five to twenty-seven yards a day. The others, of course, like his first counterpane loom, were thrown aside. This loom was started in the summer of 1841. In the autumn he went to England. During this short visit the manufactures of that country naturally drew his special regard. He at once saw that, in some important particulars, the English manufacturers were in advance of ours. His opinion, to this effect, frankly expressed on his return to Lowell, was received at first with murmurs of surprise and incredulity. It was not long, however, before the practical adoption of his suggestions showed that they had taken full effect. In 1842 the several manufacturing corporations of Lowell paid a deserved tribute to Mr. Bigelow's knowledge and skill, by creating a new office, with a liberal salary, and appointing him to fill it. His duties were to make improvements and suggestions, and, generally, to advise and consult with the agents of the respective companies. In this capacity he brought forward some important improvements, which were adopted by all the cotton mills of Lowell. Finding his new office too general in its character and duties to give results satisfactory to himself, he resigned at the end of eighteen months, and with his retirement the office itself expired. During this period he built, for the Lowell Company, a mill to receive his power-loom; and thus started the first successful power-loom carpet factory recorded in the annals of manufacture.

Before quitting his post at Lowell, Mr. Bigelow had projected a new manufacturing establishment at Lancaster for the weaving of ginghams. A company was formed; the required capital was promptly subscribed, and the projector was charged with the execution of the design. At the same time the Lowell Company resolved to build a large mill for the reception of their carpet power-loom, and Mr. Bigelow was commissioned to design and erect it. Both of these mills are of vast size, and in character perfectly unique. The one last named, with its two hundred iron looms, is, in fact, a grand carpet machine—the mill and its furniture being so combined, adjusted, and adapted, as to produce the most harmonious action and the highest results. The Lancaster mill is even more remarkable. Its connected structures, covering more than four acres of ground, are filled with machinery and apparatus of the most perfect character, much of which was invented or adapted, and all of which was arranged and adjusted by Mr. Bigelow. Of this mill, the Editor of the *Merchant's Magazine* says: "It is deservedly rated as the most perfect establishment in the United States." Of the dye house connected with it, he speaks as "probably the most perfect in the world;" adding, "that the entire arrangement is of the most perfect description, and in its vast completeness stands a splendid monument to the genius and masterly power of the mind of its projector." These immense structures, with their numerous and various and complicate machines, many of which were new, and nearly all of which were newly modified or adjusted, were carried on simultaneously—the working plans for the buildings and the machinery being furnished as fast as the work advanced. Of Mr. Bigelow's business talent, his constructive abilities, and clear, far-reaching mental vision, some estimate may be formed from the fact, that extensive, complex, various, and costly, as these works were, not even fifty dollars were lost from any change of plans. Contemporaneously with these labors, he super-

intended important enlargements of the Counterpane Works, and of those belonging to the Coach-lace Company. Nor was this all. During the three years thus occupied, he made nine distinct, important, and patented inventions. It would have been strange if, under a mental pressure so constant and intense, his health had not given way. Justly alarmed, at length, he fled from the toil and care which would soon have ended all. A voyage to Europe, with his family, and a continental journey, completely restored him.

On his return in 1848, he proceeded to develop and complete the Brussels Carpet Loom. The basis of this machine was indeed contained in the loom for coach-lace. But farther invention was needed to adapt it to the weaving of wider fabrics, to the making of figures that match, and to the formation of velvet-pile. This was fully accomplished. His power-loom weaves rapidly and perfectly the Brussels and the Wilton, the tapestry and velvet tapestry carpets. They are competent, in fact, to every kind of looped and velvet-pile fabric known in the market.

In September, 1851, Mr. Bigelow took with him to England specimens of his Brussels carpet. Their appearance at the Exhibition, though late, drew much attention, and largely increased the favor with which the British public had already begun to look on the so long despised American Department. The juries having then closed their labors, no prize could be awarded to these fabrics. But in a supplement to the Report on Class XIX, we find the following:—

“The specimens of Brussels carpeting exhibited by Mr. Bigelow are woven by a power-loom invented and patented by him, and are better and more perfectly woven than any hand-loom goods that have come under the notice of the jury. This, however, is a very small part of their merit, or rather of that of Mr. Bigelow, who has completely triumphed over the numerous obstacles that presented themselves, and succeeded in substituting steam power for manual labor in the manufacture of five-frame Brussels carpets. Several patents have been taken out by different inventors in this country for effecting the same object; but as yet none of them has been brought into successful or extensive operation, and the honor of this achievement—one of great practical difficulty, as well as of great commercial value, must be awarded to a native of the United States.”

The shrewd and practical manufacturers of England were quick to see and prompt to acknowledge the value of the new machinery.* An arrangement was immediately made with Messrs. Crossly & Sons for placing the looms in their immense carpet manufactory at Halifax. Subsequently these gentlemen purchased and now hold the patent-right for the United Kingdom.

Previously to the introduction of Mr. Bigelow's inventions, power-loom had scarcely been used for any but the plainest and simplest fabrics. These improvements cover the whole higher range of textile art. If we except such regal luxuries as the pictured tapestries of the Gobelins, there is no complex, or useful, or beautiful texture produced by skill and patience in the hand-loom, to which his machinery has not been or may not be adapted. As compared with the plainer and more prosaic processes, this almost magical mechanism and its results of endless and beautiful variety, may be called, not unaptly, the poetry of the loom. With such means at their command,

* As a testimony to the merit and importance of his invention, the compliment of a public dinner was tendered to Mr. Bigelow, by gentlemen of high standing, among whom were some distinguished members of Parliament. This honor, his modesty led him to decline.

and aided by the untiring arm of falling or of expanding water, our modern Penelopes are producing webs that rival the fabled labors of Arachne, with a rapidity which Pallas might have envied.

To appreciate the difficulties of this achievement, and the greatness of the success, one must keep in view the nature and demands of the weaving art. Each different fiber which it uses, has its own peculiar properties, and whether it be cotton, or wool, or flax, or silk, the machinery must be adapted to those peculiarities. The number of fabrics which differ essentially in their texture is almost countless. To these considerations must be added the constantly recurring changes in figure and in color required to meet a fickle taste and ever-varying demand. *He* must be a good arithmetician who can calculate the combinations required to produce by automatic machinery the numerous dissimilar fabrics which fill up the long interval between plain cloth and a Wilton carpet. More than all, perhaps, it deserves to be considered, that a power-loom for weaving tissues of the higher class, must have not only many and complex mechanical movements, but to a certain extent also, the capacity of self-adaptation—an ability, in fact, to meet exigencies as they arise.

The extent of Mr. Bigelow's contributions to inventive art has often been misapprehended. Many think of him as the inventor of a single machine—the carpet power-loom—and suppose this to be all. It is a great mistake. The numerous and complex requirements of the textile art were not to be met by a single invention. Accordingly, Mr. Bigelow has, in this connection, twenty-two United States patents. Each of these is a distinct but necessary part in a closely-connected series of improvements, by means of which, under appropriate modifications, every variety of fabric may be wrought by power-looms.

It is difficult by mere description to impart a clear idea of mechanical movements. All that we shall here attempt will, we trust, be intelligible to any one who has ever seen a loom in action. The figure on coach-lace is formed by raising on the surface of the ground-cloth, a pile similar to that of the Brussels carpet. It is made by looping the warps over fine wires, which are inserted under such of them as have been selected by the Jacquard to form the figure. These warps are then woven into the body of the cloth. The wires are now withdrawn, to be reinserted. In the Bigelow loom this finger work is executed by automatic pincers. There is something wonderfully cunning in the movement of these nippers. Seizing the end of the wire, they draw it out from the loops, carry it back towards the lathe, thrust it into what is called the open shed, and there drop it. The warp-threads, which had been drawn apart, are now closed, and immediately reopened for the passage of the shuttle, which carries the woof to tie and bind the loops. The pincers having dropped their wire, return to take another. As it is necessary to have a number of these wires, and as they lie close together, a difficulty arose. It was clearly impossible to make the pincers so narrow, and so exact in their discrimination, as to seize the proper wire and not molest its neighbors. This was avoided by a mechanical contrivance on the other side of the loom, which, just at the right moment, gives a little push to just the right wire, and thus puts it in just the right place for the waiting pincers. The curious mechanism by which these little rods are withdrawn and replaced, must work, it is evident, in perfect harmony with that which forms the figure.

The loom for Brussels and tapestry carpeting is the coach-lace loom full

grown. Nothing short of actual inspection can give any just idea of its wonderful capacities and life-like action. Wires three feet or more in length are here inserted and withdrawn with a precision and quickness which no manual dexterity ever attained. Let us watch the operation. First, mark that intruding knife or wedge, which, as it rises, separates from its companions the wire next to be taken, and guides the pusher, which shoves it along towards the pincers. The pincers now walk up, grasp the wire, and draw it entirely out. While this is doing, another set of nippers, hanging down like two human hands, come forward, descend, and catch the wire at the moment when the drawing pincers drop their prey. No sooner have they seized the wire than they retreat to their original position, beneath which a small angular trough has just arrived. The fingers relax, and the wire drops into the trough, which immediately returns. Last of all, a triangular pusher rushing through the trough sends the rod into the open shed. Note also the double action of the withdrawing pincers, which, while they attend to their own special mission, perform also sergeant's duty, by constantly bringing into line the straggling wires. Those bird-like three-fingered claws, which dart back and forth with such rapidity, are busy in plaiting the selvage, and their work is perfect. These, too, are "contrived a double debt to pay," for, whenever their thread breaks, they instantly stop the loom. In this loom, and that for coach-lace, the mechanical contrivance for weighting the warp threads is the same, being one of the most ingenious as well as most important of Mr. Bigelow's improvements.

What is this remarkable process which we call *invention*? How does the brain act while devising its wonders of mechanic skill? These are questions of interest to inquiring minds, and may well puzzle those to whom even the witnessed action of complicate mechanism is a mystery impenetrable. By some it is supposed to be a sort of hybrid process—a result in which chance and calculation are about equally concerned. Accident has, doubtless, at times, had something to do with it. The slightest incident may start the train of thought, which shall lead to some great discovery or invention. But in that train of thought there is nothing random or accidental. The mathematical element must of necessity figure largely. Yet in the mental series it is not first in order, nor is it, in fact, more essential than another faculty seldom associated with our ideas of machinery. The great mechanical inventor is perhaps the only person who compels the Mathematics to wait upon the Imagination. This power, and this alone, can supply him with the *means* of accomplishing his purposes. For the effectual use of these means he depends on the science of number and quantity. That this substantially was the process in those inventions to which our attention has now been turned, appears from the following answer of Mr. Bigelow to an inquiry on that point.

"I am not sure that I can convey to your mind a satisfactory idea of the inventive process in my own case. One thing is certain, it is not chance. Neither does it depend, to any great extent, on suggestive circumstances. These may present the objects, but they are no guide to the invention itself. The falling apple only suggested to Newton a subject of inquiry. All that we know of the law of gravitation had to be reasoned out afterward.

"My first step toward an invention has always been to get a clear idea of the object aimed at. I learn its requirements as a whole, and also as composed of separate parts. If, for example, that object be the weaving of coach-lace, I ascertain the character of the several motions required, and the rela-

tions which these must sustain to each other in order to effect a combined result. Secondly, I devise means to produce these motions ; and, thirdly, I combine these means, and reduce them to a state of harmonious co-operation.

“To carry an invention through its first and second stages is comparatively easy. The first is simply an investigation of facts ; the second, so far as I can trace the operations of my own mind, comes through the exercise of the imagination. I am never at a loss for means, in the sense above explained. On the contrary, my chief difficulty is to select from the variety always at command those which are most appropriate. To make this choice of the elementary means, and to combine them in unity and harmony—to conduct, that is, an invention through its last or practical stage, constitutes the chief labor.

“In making this choice of the elementary parts, one must reason from what is known to what is not so—keeping in mind, at the same time, the necessary combinations, examining each element, not only in reference to its peculiar function, but to its fitness also for becoming a part of the whole. Each portion must be thus examined and re-examined, modified and re-modified, until harmony and unity are fully established. From the severity of this labor many inventors shrink, and this is the main reason why some very ingenious men fail to obtain satisfactory results. In my own case, the labor has not ended with the perfection of my looms ; other machines, preparatory and auxiliar, were necessary to give full effect to the inventions.

“It is a well-known fact that complex inventions have not, as a general thing, come at once into use. In many cases this has been because they were not immediately brought into harmony with other things. In a state of natural progress things move on together and become mutually adjusted. An important invention often disturbs these adjustments, and cannot be made to work efficiently until other inventions and new arrangements have brought all the related processes into accordance with it. This arduous duty I have endeavored to perform for all my looms. Lee’s hand stocking-loom was invented several years before it was reduced to practice, and even this was not effected by the inventor. The comparatively simple power-loom for weaving plain cloth was of very slow growth. A long time elapsed before its organization was so far harmonized as to work at all, and for several years afterward, successive improvements only gave to it a moderate speed. Its capacity, in this respect, has actually been doubled within the last fifteen years. If my own more complex machines for the production of figured fabrics have attained at once to a high state of perfection, I attribute it, in part, to the fact that my attention has also been given to those processes which are subordinate, preparatory, and collateral, and that these have been made to accord with the main invention. That this claim of success is not extravagant will appear, I think, when it is considered that the cost of weaving coach-lace was at one stride reduced from twenty-two cents to three cents a yard, and that of Brussels carpet from thirty cents to four cents. Of the fabric last named, my power-loom, under the easy tending of a single girl, produces from twenty to twenty-five yards daily, and this of the best quality. That mechanical possibilities do not reach much farther in this direction, will be conceded probably by all who are acquainted with the peculiar character of the process.

“I find no difficulty in effecting that concentration of thought which is so necessary in pursuits like mine. Indeed, it is not easy for me to withdraw

my mind from any subject in which it has once become interested, until its general bearings at least are fully ascertained. I always mature in my mind the general plan of an invention before attempting to execute it, resorting occasionally to sketches on paper for the more intricate parts. A draughtsman prepares the working drawings from sketches furnished by me, which indicate in figures the proportions of the parts. I never make anything with my own hands. I do not like even drawing to a scale."

It has become almost a proverbial remark that great inventors seldom reap the fruit of their ingenious toil. This has happened, not merely from the fact referred to above, that they have failed to perfect their inventions by meeting as they ought the new demands which their own improvements had created, but also because they have too frequently been inventors *only*. Absorbed in their own pleasing projects, neglecting to avail themselves of what they have actually accomplished, in their ardent zeal to achieve something greater, they leave their rights unsecured, or suffer them to slip out of their hands. They labor, and other men—far inferior men—enter into their labors. To this rule, if it be one, Mr. Bigelow is a striking exception. He is no dreaming genius, who needs a guardian to protect his rights and manage his affairs. He is as much at home in matters of business as among the wheels and levers of his looms. Several of his most important contracts, drawn wholly by himself, have commanded the admiration of acute lawyers. More than once his patents have been invaded; but in every case the offenders have yielded, either to his prudent firmness, or to the strong arm of law. In a single instance—and then through the negligence of a legal agent—he failed to obtain protection, in the English patent office, for some important principles. It was a serious injury.

In the ingrain-carpet power-looms of the great mills at Lowell, about thirteen hundred thousand yards are made annually. The same fabric is woven in large quantities by companies at Tariffville and Thompsonville, Ct., whose power-looms are worked under license from the Lowell Company. Messrs. Higgins & Co. are using the Bigelow looms for tapestry and velvet-tapestry carpets, in their establishment in New York. Another company, in Troy, N. Y., is weaving the same article under license from Mr. Bigelow. At Humphreysville, Ct., several looms, are now employed in the manufacture of silk brocatelle. Mr. B. adapted and constructed the machinery for this beautiful fabric in 1851. Goods for which the hand-loom artisans of Lyons get three francs a yard, are made here at a cost for labor of fifteen cents a yard. The agent, Mr. Humaston, is entitled to much praise for the skill and perseverance with which he has brought these works into successful operation.*

In 1849, Clinton was made a township by legislative act. In 1837, when the brothers Bigelow went to this spot, that they might use one of its brooks in operating the coach-lace loom, it was the least cultivated and least valued part of the old and beautiful town of Lancaster. At that time it contained some two hundred inhabitants; it has now about four thousand. There may be seen the great gingham mill already named, producing annually nearly five millions of yards; the counterpane mill, which turns out yearly one hundred and fifty thousand dollars' worth of goods; the establishment

* Specimens of various fabrics woven in the Bigelow looms may be seen in advantageous comparison at the Crystal Palace in New York. No. 2 in Division A, Court 3, is a case of silk brocatelles from Seymour, Ct. No. 3 of Class 19, in the gallery, is an exhibition of carpets by the Lowell Co. No. 37 is Brussels carpeting from the Bigelow Carpet Co., and coach-lace from the Clinton Co. No. 51 is tapestry velvet and tapestry Brussels from the establishment of the Messrs. Higgins.

of the Clinton Company, where two million yards of coach-lace, tweeds, &c., are woven; and that of the Bigelow Carpet Company, belonging to the two Bigelows and to H. P. Fairbanks, of Boston, the daily results of which are a thousand yards of Brussels and Wilton carpeting. The amount made by this single establishment, now only three years old, is equal to the entire importation of Brussels carpet from England at the time when the works were started. Though these looms run night and day, they are inadequate to the constant demand.

We have seen, with admiration, on both sides of the ocean, many a village and city which owed their prosperity, if not their existence, to the genius of modern manufacture. But to us, there is a charm in Clinton which belongs to no other place of the kind. As from those gentle, woody heights we have surveyed its monuments of ingenuity, wealth, and enterprise—its numerous evidences of industry and thrift—its pleasant homes of competence and content—its institutions for learning and social improvement, and its neat temples reared for God—all of it the magical creation of a few short years—the spectacle certainly lost none of its interest because we could trace it directly to the efforts of a single mind. Clinton, with all its actual and its prospective importance, was assuredly predestinated in that abode of honorable poverty, those hours of toil and vigil, and that filial love, which gave birth to the coach-lace loom. Happy he who may thus behold around him the good which he has done! While scattering “plenty o’er a smiling land,” he plants also in good ground the blessed seeds of individual and domestic happiness, of social progress, of education, and morals, and religion.

It would be a great injustice to omit in this reference to Clinton, one, who deserves to be called its twin founder—Horatio N. Bigelow. At the very outset, while success was yet uncertain, when he was himself poor and struggling, he gave pecuniary aid to his brother in the patenting and building of his inventions. All the mills in Clinton were started by him, and two of them are still under his management. To his skill, industry, and business talent, much of their success is undoubtedly due. It is not easy to estimate the advantage derived by the inventor from so able and so faithful an execution of his plans.

Mr. Bigelow’s father, for whose sustenance and comfort he gave up his own cherished schemes and devoted himself to invention, after aiding his son in building the coach-lace loom, died, much to the son’s regret, just before its success was made certain. His mother, not yet very far advanced, lives to share the prosperity and affection of her sons. He has been twice married. His first wife died early, leaving an infant child. This boy of much promise survived his mother hardly seven years. His present wife is a daughter of the late Col. David Means, of Amherst, N. H. They have one child—a daughter.

Mr. B. is a man of middling stature, and slightly inclined to roundness. The lineaments of his face and head, which the engraving gives with great fidelity, are such as one might look for after hearing his story.

The individual, whose well-directed labors have not only gained for himself reputation and fortune, but furnish employment and support to many thousand persons, while they save annually for his native land millions of dollars, is still under forty years of age. With such power of intellectual analysis and combination, such energy and persistency of purpose, he cannot yet have discharged the debt which he owes to his country and to mankind. That he still intends to devote himself to the advancement of industrial art, in all its interests, moral and material, we have the best reason to believe.

ART. III.—THE TRADE AND COMMERCE OF BALTIMORE IN 1853.

In several of our marts of trade, as New Orleans and Cincinnati, the commercial year closes with September. In others it commences in January and ends on the 31st of December. Among the latter are St. Louis and Baltimore. In each of these cities admirable annual statements are prepared, and published in one or more of the mercantile journals of these cities, as is well known to most of our readers. Some of these reports are made under the superintendence of their Boards of Trade or Chambers of Commerce. Several of these statements we have transferred, from year to year, to the pages of the *Merchants' Magazine*, with a view of presenting in our works a faithful history of the progress of industry and Commerce at all the leading points of our country, and further, to give them a more permanent record, and one more easy of access than they could obtain in the columns of a daily or weekly journal.

In accordance with these views we published, in the *Merchants' Magazine* for February, 1852, and in the same month of 1853, the annual reports and statistics of the Trade and Commerce of Baltimore, as furnished to our hands by the reliable editors of the *Baltimore Price Current*. We now give, in continuation of this series, the fourth annual statement (derived from the same reliable source) of the Trade and Commerce of Baltimore for the year ending December 30th, 1853 :—

AMERICAN COTTON AND WOOLEN GOODS. The amount of business done in domestic dry goods in Baltimore the past twelve months has been equal to that of almost any former year, and prices of most descriptions of goods have ruled at very remunerating figures. Our market opened firm in January, both for bleached and brown cotton goods, with a good demand, and so continued, with but slight variation, throughout that and the next month. Since that time the demand has held on remarkably well, there being a very fair quantity of goods sold in the summer season, with a slight decline in prices, which was recovered in anticipation of an unusually active fall trade. The season for cottons closes with prices unchanged and light stocks. For woolens the market opened very firm, with a good demand, during the spring—the demand in May and June was rather limited, but prices remained steady until September, when there was a tendency to give way on many styles, the market being influenced by the new clip of the raw material, and in that month, as well as October and November, sales were made at a reduction of 10 a 15 per cent on most styles. There was a good business done, however, in that season, and toward the close of November prices improved with light stocks. The year closes with much animation, but with little disposition to give way in prices.

COAL. Our trade in both Cumberland and anthracite has greatly increased within the year just closed, as our table below indicates, and had the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad Co. possessed the facilities generally calculated upon, in January last, for accommodating the rapidly growing demand for Cumberland, the receipts here doubtless would have reached at least 100,000 tons additional, and thereby have justified the estimates then made of the ensuing year's business. This deficiency, however, has happened well on one very important account, and that is the great difficulty in obtaining vessels, so characteristic of the past year, to carry the coal from our wharves. The day is by no means distant, we think, when the Cumberland district will prove equal in productiveness to any coal region in the world. It is calculated that less wood and more coal has been consumed the past year than for a long period of time before, the high price of the former article having induced many to substitute coal for culinary and other domestic purposes. This in part accounts for the large increase in the receipts of anthracite at our port, which exceed those of 1852 by nearly 60,000 tons.

RECEIPTS OF COAL AT BALTIMORE FOR THE PAST NINE YEARS, TO THE 31ST OF DECEMBER.

	Cumberland.	Anthracite.
1845.....	16,000 tons.	90,000 tons.
1846.....	18,898 "	100,000 "
1847.....	50,259 "	110,000 "
1848.....	60,289 "	125,000 "
1849.....	71,699 "	140,000 "
1850.....	146,645 "	160,000 "
1851.....	163,855 "	200,000 "
1852.....	256,000 "	125,000 "
1853.....	406,000 "	183,000 "

COFFEE. The importations of this important article of our trade have fallen off somewhat the past year, as will be seen by our table below. This, however, is to be attributed to the difficulty that has existed of executing orders at Rio, on account of the advanced prices there. Of Laguayra there is likewise a decrease in the importations. The stock on hand in this market January 1st, 1853, was 32,500 bags; the importations of all kinds during the year amount to 208,702 bags, being 44,990 bags less than in the year 1852, and about 100,000 bags less than 1851. Stock on hand January 1st, 1854, 40,000 bags—a small portion only being in first hands, and the residue divided pretty generally among the trade.

In referring to the files of this paper for the past year, we find that the market for Rio opened very quiet in January, but grew more active toward the close of that month, the ruling prices being for run of cargo 9 a 9½ cents; February opened brisk, and prices slightly improved, reaching for prime parcels 10 cents; these quotations continued to rule with but little variation until the beginning of summer; in the meanwhile, however, large purchases were made on speculation—based upon statements contemplating a short crop in Brazil—at an average of 9½ cents for run of cargos. Subsequently the market again became dull and inactive, principally on account of the large stock in importers' hands, which in the month of July amounted to 87,000 bags; prices were nevertheless well sustained at 9½ a 10 cents until the close of the month of August, when a more active demand prevailed, and the article began to improve, the stock sensibly decreasing under large sales and light importations. This feeling continued during the month of September, the quotations being 11½ a 12 cents. Subsequently, the market declined again to 10½ a 11½ cents, and continued to rule at those figures until the middle of November, when it was considerably relieved by large shipments south, leaving a reduced stock. Favorable advices were also received from Brazil confirming previous intelligence of a short crop and enhanced prices, and a corresponding improvement was realized here; since when, prices have continued to advance, the market closing firmly at 13 cents for prime, 12½ cents for good, and 12 cents for ordinary Rio. The average price during the year has been 10 cents; during last year, under larger importations, it was 9½ cents per pound.

IMPORTS OF COFFEE AT THIS PORT FOR FOUR YEARS:

	1853.	1852.	1851.	1850.
From Rio Janeiro.....	182,338	224,082	266,240	150,194
From Laguayra.....	12,241	16,241	21,081	24,040
From Porto Cabello.....				
From Maracaibo.....	554	5,873	2,754
From West Indies.....	3,367	8,535	8,114	6,532
From coastwise.....	10,756	4,280	3,885	3,934
Total.....	208,702	253,692	305,103	187,454

COTTON. Within the past year evidences of a much larger trade in this great staple have shown themselves in our midst, and a considerable quantity has been exported direct to Europe. Heretofore our manufacturers have taken the greater portion of the receipts. Since the completion of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, we have been receiving quite freely from Tennessee, and the coming year

gives promise of large additions to our trade from that quarter. All that has come to hand was taken for export mostly at 10½ cents. The first week in January our quotations were, middling to middling fair Upland and Gulf 9½ a 10½ cents, 6 months. In April, sales were made at 9 a 12 cents for Virginia, Georgia and Gulf. Near the close of June, the range was 10 a 12 cents, 4 and 6 months, for Upland, Mobile, New Orleans, and Tennessee. In September, sales were made at 11 a 12 cents, 4 and 6 months, for Gulf and Tennessee. At the close of November prices were 10 a 11½ cents, 6 months, Virginia, Georgia, and Charleston. The market closed the last week in December with a fair demand from the trade at 9 a 11½ cents, 6 months, for Upland and Gulf. The cotton crop of 1853 was the largest ever grown, amounting to 3,262,882 bales.

The receipts of cotton at this port for the last four years have been as follows, as near as can be ascertained:—

	1853.	1852.	1851.	1850.
From New Orleans.....	4,696	4,734	3,070	4,015
From Mobile.....	2,452	3,369	2,737	1,371
From Apalachicola.....	833	1,496	677	1,883
From Savannah.....	3,189	2,995	2,950	2,500
From Charleston.....	10,833	13,000	12,500	10,000
From North Carolina.....	2,000	2,009	2,000	1,500
From Virginia, Tennessee, &c.....	11,600	6,000	5,500	4,500
Total.....	35,003	33,594	29,434	25,769

FISH. The inspections of mackerel within the year 1853 show a further decrease as compared with those of the two previous years. Our dealers account for this by the smallness of the last "catch," the high prices which have prevailed, and last, though not least, the system of obligatory inspection now existing in our State. From this reason, it is found that large orders are being sent from the west to Boston, which merely pass in transitu through our city without inspection, and these amount to three or four thousand barrels yearly—the saving to the western merchant being about 18 cents per barrel. The law, as it at present operates, is complained of as an odious species of discrimination against our trade, and we trust the dealers will again make application to our Legislature for its repeal, and meet with more success than heretofore.

The stock of mackerel on hand January 1st, 1853, was 3,200 barrels; inspections during the year, 12,597 barrels; showing a decrease, compared with the year 1852, of 10,740 barrels, and 17,204 barrels compared with 1851. Stock on hand 1st instant was estimated at 2,000 barrels. We note the prices on the 1st of each month as follows:—

MACKEREL.									
	No. 1.		No. 2.		No. 3.				
January.....	\$13 50	to \$14 00	to	to	to
February.....	13 50	" 14 00	\$9 50	" \$11 00	\$8 25	" \$8 50	to
March.....	12 50	" 13 00	10 25	" 11 50	8 25	" 8 50	to
April.....	12 50	" 13 50	10 50	" 11 50	8 50	" 8 75	to
May.....	12 50	" 13 50	10 62	" 11 75	8 75	" 9 25	to
June.....	13 25	" 13 50	10 50	" 11 50	8 75	" 9 00	to
July.....	13 25	" 13 50	10 50	" 11 50	8 50	" 8 62	to
August.....	13 00	" 13 50	10 50	" 11 50	8 62	" 8 75	to
September.....	13 00	" 13 50	10 50	" 11 50	8 62	" 8 75	to
October.....	"	12 50	"	8 75	" 9 00	to
November.....	"	13 50	" 15 50	9 00	" 9 25	to
December.....	17 00	"	13 00	"	8 75	" 9 25	to

Herrings. The supply the past year had been large, on account of the increased catch, both of the Eastern fisheries and our own. The first of new from North Carolina were received in the latter part of March, and sold at \$6 00 per barrel, and as the season progressed prices declined to \$4 75 a 5 00 in May, and

continued to rule at \$5 00 for the residue of the season, for Potomac. Eastern have likewise commanded good prices throughout the year, opening in April at \$3 87½, declining in August to \$3 00, and improving again toward the fall to \$4 00 a 4 25, and have continued to rule quite steady at about those figures since, closing however dull, with a stock of about 10,000 barrels.

Shad. The inspections the past year show an increase over 1852 of 1,606 barrels. The first receipts of new catch were near the close of March, and sold at \$11 per barrel; and as the season advanced, the receipts increased and prices declined, ruling during the balance of the season at \$9 00 a 9 50 per barrel.

Flour. The total inspections of both Howard street and City Mills flour for the last year show a slight falling off compared with those of 1852. Among the principal causes assigned for this decrease is the short crop of wheat raised in some sections of western Virginia, from which a large proportion of our supplies of flour are obtained, and the unusually low stage of water in all the streams, from which the millers have suffered very materially. It will be seen, at the same time, that the receipts of wheat are about the same as those of last year, which is accounted for by the fact last mentioned, and it is supposed that but for the long continued scarcity of water, the inspections in Baltimore would have amounted to some three hundred thousand barrels more than the quantity given below.

We present as follows a brief review of the course of our market for the last twelve months. Few years have been attended with more remarkable fluctuations in this exceedingly sensitive article than the one just closed, nor do we think it has often been the case that so active an interest has been felt in its rise or fall by those not immediately interested in the trade. The rupture between two great European powers has been watched in all its phases as affecting bread-stuffs, and as the prospect of peace becomes less and less apparent, the whole continent being now the same as involved in the "last resort of kings," it deeply concerns the people of this country to know the probable extent of a future foreign demand, so long as we maintain friendly relations with all the world.

Howard street. The market opened active in January, under favorable European advices, with large sales at \$5 18½ a 5 25, and continued to rule at those figures for the remainder of the month. February opened with an improvement, the sales being at \$5 25 a 5 37½, but the market declined again in a few days to \$5 12½, and on the 18th to \$4 81½ a 4 87½. During the rest of the month it was unsteady, running up to \$5 25, and closing at \$5 00. March opened dull at \$5 00, and on the 11th March market declined to \$4 75, at which it ruled quite steady for some days, and then further declined to \$4 62½, at which the month closed. April commenced dull at same figures, but the prices improved on the 8th, the sales being at \$4 81½, and on the 15th to \$5 00, but declined again to \$4 75 on the 21st, and for the balance of the month fluctuated between \$4 75 a 4 87½. May opened at \$4 87½, but market declined on the 20th to \$4 68½, and closed at \$4 56½. In June prices ranged from \$4 50 a 4 75, principally at \$4 56½ a 4 62½. In July the market opened at \$4 62½, and continued to improve, reaching \$5 25 on the 22d—the advance being mainly attributed to the small stock on hand and the active demand which then existed, but toward the close of the month the foreign news created a decline, sales being made at \$5 00 a 5 12½. In August the market was brisk under favorable European advices, and prices further advanced to \$5 25 a 5 37½, but declining again to \$5 12½ a 5 25 at the close. September opened active under continued favorable news from Europe, and prices advanced to \$5 50 on the 2d, and to \$6 12½ on the 15th; prices again receded on the 23d to \$5 87½, and closed on the 30th at \$6 25. October opened at \$6 25, market advanced to \$6 75 the first week, and on the 14th touched \$7 00, declining again on the 21st to \$6 25, at which it continued steady through the following week, closing, however, at \$6 37½. November opened at \$6 37½, and under further foreign news, the market again advanced to \$7 00 on the 4th, declining again on the 18th to \$6 37½, and closing at \$6 75. In December this price prevailed for a time, but the market declined on the 17th to \$6 25, advancing again toward the close to \$7.

FLOUR INSPECTIONS FOR THE LAST FIVE YEARS.

	1849.	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
Howard street.....	474,619	549,233	533,549	729,532	593,807
City Mills.....	245,753	295,236	324,158	486,096	439,590
Susquehanna.....	16,272	17,057	23,399	51,317	65,587
Ohio.....	6,291	56,210
Family.....	27,874	36,171	34,494	33,929	26,409
Total.....	764,518	896,697	915,600	1,307,165	1,181,603
Rye.....	8,011	5,480	7,578	6,450	5,394
Corn Meal.....	54,837	45,360	33,145	57,183	38,478

GRAIN. It affords us much satisfaction to be enabled, after an almost incredible amount of labor, together with the generous assistance of one of the largest houses in the trade, to spread before our readers to-day another full and reliable exhibit of the receipts of this highly important article of the business of our port, which will be found under their appropriate heads below, as well as the disposition of the same during the past year. Whilst there appears, by this exhibit, to be a slight falling off in wheat, it is more than made up by the receipts of corn, which swell the aggregate even above that of 1852. The crop of wheat, as a general thing, in the sections from whence Baltimore draws her supplies, was large, and in quality superior to that of last year.

Wheat. The year's business opened with very light receipts, which continued, notwithstanding a steady active demand, until the receipts of new crop, which was early in July. Sales of white parcels were made early in January at \$1 18 a 1 23, and \$1 14 a 1 17 for red. In February and March supplies continued light, although at the close of the latter month a decline took place, and in the beginning of April the quotations were \$1 08 a 1 12 for white, and \$1 00 a 1 04 for red. From this time the market gradually improved, until it reached \$1 15 a 1 17 for white, and \$1 12 a 1 14 for red, but receded subsequently. In July, new crop sold at \$1 10 a 1 15 for red, and \$1 15 a 1 18 for white, under the influence of European advices. Much of the wheat which came to market within the ensuing month proved damp and sprouted, or otherwise unsuitable for shipment or immediate grinding. Since that time prices for good parcels have continued to improve as the market advanced abroad. The closing prices are the highest realized during the year, being for red \$1 55 a 1 60, white \$1 63 a 1 63. The receipts have been as follows:—

WHEAT.

By the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad.....bush.	185,000
“ “ Susquehanna Railroad.....	144,263
“ Philadelphia, Wilmington and Baltimore Railroad.....	5,000
“ Tide-Water Canal and wagons.....	322,370
“ Water-borne from Maryland Virginia, and North Carolina.....	2,755,832
Total.....	3,411,965

Which has been disposed of as follows:—

Shipped coastwise.....	1,091,000
“ to Europe.....	242,459
“ British North American Colonies.....	5,789
Ground by city millers.....	1,720,717
Stock held by millers.....	240,000
“ others, and on shipboard not cleared.....	112,000
Total.....	3,411,965

The stock held by millers, December 31st, 1852, was estimated at 320,000 bushels.

Corn. January, receipts were fair; sales of white at 64 a 66 cents; yellow, 60 a 64 cents, ruling quite steady during the month. February, white, 55 a 57 cents; yellow, 60 a 62 cents. March, prices had declined to 51 a 52 cents for white, and 55 a 56 for yellow; subsequently the market improved, the variations being but slight, until near the close of May, the quotations then being, for white, 55 a 57 cents, and yellow, 60 a 61 cents; still further advancing, reaching July 21, to 70 cents for white, and 69 cents for yellow. In August, prices were, for white, 60 a 62 cents, and yellow 68 cents. In September, sales of white were at 70 a 71 cents, yellow, 74 a 75 cents; in October, opened at 82 a 84 cents for white; 80 a 82 cents for yellow, and closed at 64 a 67 cents for white, and 68 to 70 cents for yellow. In November new crop began to arrive, and sold at 58 a 63 cents for white and yellow, and during the remainder of the year fluctuated considerably, closing quotations being 60 a 62 cents for white, and 64 a 66 cents for yellow. We give the receipts as follows:—

CORN.

By the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad.....	250,000
“ “ Susquehanna Railroad.....	207,978
“ Philadelphia, Wilmington, and Baltimore Railroad.....	12,000
“ Tide-Water Canal and wagons.....	90,000
Water-borne.....	3,346,516
Total.....	3,906,494

Which has been disposed of as follows:—

Shipments coastwise.....	2,553,189
“ to Europe.....	138,322
“ to West Indies and British North American Colonies.....	89,983
“ to K. D., corn meal.....	160,000
Taken by distillers.....	575,000
City consumption.....	400,000
Total.....	3,906,494

Oats. The past year has yielded another large crop of oats, particularly of Pennsylvania, from whence receipts amount alone to over 200,000 bushels. In January, sales of Pennsylvania were made at 42 a 44 cents, and Maryland and Virginia 38 a 40 cents; in March, sales of the former were made at 40 a 42 cents, and the latter at 38 a 40 cents, at about which prices the market continued until December, when it advanced to 44 a 45 cents for Pennsylvania, and Maryland and Virginia 40 a 42 cents. The total receipts amount to about 780,000 bushels, of which 275,000 bushels were brought by railroad, and the balance by wagons and vessels. Shippers have taken about 140,000 bushels, the balance having gone into home consumption.

Rye. The receipts sum up about 130,000 bushels, of which distillers have taken 140,000 bushels. Prices have ranged from 80 to 93 cents for Pennsylvania, and about 75 to 80 cents for Maryland.

B. E. Peas. Receipts amount to about 13,000 bushels, all taken for the West Indies.

White Beans. Receipts about 4,000 bushels.

The following are the comparative receipts of grain for four years:—

	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
Wheat.....	2,300,000	2,600,000	3,451,150	3,411,965
Corn.....	3,250,500	2,650,000	3,745,900	3,906,494
Oats.....	600,000	450,000	800,000	780,000
Rye.....	140,000	150,000	165,000	160,000
Peas.....	30,000	15,000	10,000	13,000
Beans.....	5,000	8,000	5,000	4,000
Total.....	6,325,000	5,868,000	8,177,050	8,275,459

GUANO. As generally anticipated, the importations of the favorite article under this head, Peruvian, have greatly increased during the past year, not only at this port, but at other ports of the United States, and we need hardly add that if the government agents had been enabled to supply our markets with four times the quantity imported, it would have been readily disposed of. The demand is in fact only limited by the supply; but arrangements having been made by which a far greater quantity may be received in this country than ever heretofore, there is no reason to believe that agriculturists will again be subjected to the inconveniences from which they have suffered so materially within the past year. So deficient has been the supply, notwithstanding the marked increase of the importations, that other descriptions of guano have been substituted to an unusual extent, and when obtained from speculators, the most exorbitant prices have frequently been paid for them. Recently discovered deposits of this excellent fertilizer have attracted the attention of some of our importers, and there has been quite a considerable quantity of Mexican received at Baltimore during the last three months, amounting in all to about 4,000 tons, including several cargoes from the Caribbean Sea.

There have been imported into the United States during the year 1853, in 107 vessels, 70,530 tons of Peruvian Guano; of which 50 vessels have arrived at Baltimore, and 57 vessels at other ports.

IMPORTS OF PERUVIAN GUANO AT BALTIMORE FOR THE LAST FIVE YEARS.

1849.....	2,700 tons
1850.....	6,800 "
1851.....	25,000 "
1852.....	25,500 "
1853.....	32,152 "

HIDES. The importations at this port have been gradually decreasing for several years past, in consequence of which our market has been without a supply for a large portion of the last year, the deficiency being made up from neighboring ports.

For the first three months our market was almost entirely bare. In April the quotations were, for Laguayra 14½ a 15; La Plate, 18½; Rio Grande, 17½ a 18 cents. In June, Laguayra, 14 a 14½; Rio Grande 17; and La Plate, 17½ cents. In October the quotations were, for La Plate, 18½; Rio Grande, 17½; and Laguayra, 12½ a 14 cents. During the remainder of the year the supply was almost exclusively from coastwise ports, the market being left unusually bare.

IMPORTS FOR THE YEAR 1853.

River Plate.....	16,943
Rio Grande.....	21,784
California.....	8,868
Porto Cabello.....	29,084
Other foreign ports.....	19,387
Coastwise.....	41,426
<hr/>	
Total, 1853.....	137,690
" 1852.....	173,987
" 1851.....	253,794
" 1850.....	263,095
" 1849.....	235,742

IRON. The course of the iron market since the close of last year has been regular and tending upward for the most part, the demand throughout our country having greatly increased, so much so, that nearly all the blast furnaces, which eighteen months ago were standing idle, are now in full operation again,

and are in fact taxed to their utmost to meet the wants of the trade. Of foreign manufacture, on the contrary, there has been rather a falling off in the importations, if we except Scotch pig, much of which has been sold in our market to arrive, on speculation. The past year has been one of handsome remuneration to manufacturers and dealers, and there is no doubt that of American iron there will continue to be a steady active demand for some time to come, or at least until the present railroad-making "mania" shall have ceased. To give an idea of the present and prospective demand for iron in the United States, it is only necessary to state that there are now over 18,000 miles of railroad under construction, besides something like 15,000 miles which were already finished and doing business on the 1st inst. On January 1st, 1853, our completed railroads amounted to about 13,000 miles. We note the changes in our market as follows:—

1853.		Balto. For.		Pig char. No. 1.		Pig. An. No. 1.		Scotch Pig.	
Jan.	1 ..	\$33 00 a	\$35 00 a	\$32 00 a	\$32 00 a
	22 ..	35 00 a	40 00	35 00 a	40 00	32 00 a	36 00	35 00 a
Feb.	5 ..	45 00 a	45 00 a	42 00 a	45 00	40 00 a	42 50
	16 ..	45 00 a	45 00 a	42 00 a	45 00	40 00 a
Mar.	5 ..	45 00 a	45 00 a	40 00 a	45 00	40 00 a
	19 ..	42 50 a	42 50 a	38 00 a	40 00 a
April	2 ..	40 00 a	42 50	38 00 a	40 00	36 00 a	37 00	40 00 a
	30 ..	40 00 a	37 00 a	38 00	36 00 a	38 00 a	40 00
May	14 ..	38 00 a	40 00	36 00 a	38 00	36 00 a	38 00 a	40 00
June	4 ..	38 00 a	40 00	36 00 a	38 00	36 00 a	34 00 a	35 00
	25 ..	37 00 a	40 00	36 00 a	38 00	36 00 a	33 00 a	34 00
July	9 ..	37 50 a	40 00	36 00 a	38 00	36 00 a	33 00 a	34 00
	22 ..	37 50 a	38 00	36 00 a	36 00 a	34 00 a	35 00
Aug.	6 ..	38 00 a	40 00	38 00 a	36 00 a	32 00	35 00 a	36 00
	20 ..	38 00 a	40 00	38 00 a	36 00 a	38 00	36 00 a	37 50
Sept.	2 ..	40 00 a	38 00 a	36 00 a	38 00	40 00 a
	17 ..	40 00 a	38 00 a	36 00 a	38 00	38 00 a
Oct.	8 ..	42 00 a	44 00	40 00 a	38 00 a	40 00	40 00 a
Nov.	5 ..	40 00 a	42 00	40 00 a	38 00 a	40 00	40 00 a
Dec.	17 ..	42 00 a	40 00 a	40 00 a	40 00 a
	31 ..	41 00 a	42 00	40 00 a	42 50	40 00 a	40 00 a

LUMBER. Our table at foot shows an increase in the receipts as compared with those of last year. There has been a continued active demand throughout the whole twelve months, and our dealers have suffered. Prices have ruled higher than for several years. The following is a statement of the receipts of lumber for the past six years:—

1848.....	88,132,688	1851.....	60,000,000
1849.....	59,678,039	1852.....	76,402,129
1850.....	63,000,000	1853.....	83,000,000

MOLASSES. By reference to the table of imports below, it will be seen that they show a very material decrease from the West Indies, compared with former years, and also a slight falling off coastwise compared with last year. Sales of New Orleans were made in January at 30 a 30½, and later in the month at 29 a 30 cents. The first of new crop Cuba was received on the 13th February, and sold at 24 cents for Muscovado, and clayed at 22 cents; early in March sales of New Orleans were made at 29 a 30 cents and Cuba at 20 a 22 cents—market generally dull, and holders refusing to sell at current prices. The first cargo of new crop Porto Rico was sold at auction in March at 27½ a 28 cents; on the 17th Cuba sold at 29 cents; May opened with small receipts and light stock, and market firm, and continued so through the year, the market having been entirely bare for the last three months.

IMPORTATIONS OF MOLASSES AT BALTIMORE FOR THE LAST FOURTEEN YEARS.

	WEST INDIES.			COASTWISE.		
	Hhds.	Trces.	Bbls.	Hhds.	Trces.	Bbls.
1840....	5,420	316	157	901	363	5,317
1841.....	4,256	159	510	678	521	5,984
1842.....	3,676	155	224	413	475	9,805
1843.....	2,769	163	15	1,250	399	9,541
1844.....	5,654	434	520	586	75	4,996
1845.....	3,620	246	430	785	583	10,150
1846.....	5,586	542	692	407	201	6,925
1847.....	7,862	488	165	248	8	2,907
1848.....	6,608	852	247	721	554	12,703
1849.....	5,883	499	112	...	251	11,068
1850.....	6,815	529	294	77	244	14,715
1851.....	7,638	3,329	308	813	171	7,615
1852.....	7,027	2,064	80	838	153	14,794
1853.....	3,820	632	72	192	115	13,187

PROVISIONS. An unexpectedly large crop of hogs in the West, and consequently low prices of cured provisions, have caused a year of losses rather than profits to dealers in this large item of the domestic trade of our city. Still, no one can deny that, considering the amount of their losses, the merchants of Baltimore have held their own remarkably well, though no better perhaps than is characteristic of them. Low prices are confidently expected, and we think the result will show their course has been by no means an unwise one. Heavy contracts were made in the West for hogs during the last summer, at \$4 75 a 5 25; these prices, however, on the opening of curing season, were not sustained. The caution of buyers suggesting lower figures for safe operations, the prices receded to \$4—even this figure was considered too high by many Eastern buyers, but as it served to keep back the supply, the idea began to gain ground that the crop would not exceed that of last season, and as at length many were induced to give it credence, purchases were made more freely, and the market gradually advanced, and the price at the present time has again reached \$4 75. This mark, though not as favorable as farmers anticipated, serves to bring up the actual number of hogs to the markets where there has hitherto been a deficiency compared with last year's receipts, so much so that there is now every probability of a material excess upon the total crop of 1852-3. The prices for bacon, pork, and lard during the last season, it is believed by those well conversant with the trade, would not have proved remunerative to curers had only \$5 been paid for hogs. This fact should serve as a caution to those paying present prices with the evidence of a larger crop, without any fair prospect of an increased demand for either export or home consumption.

Prices of bacon in January ruled very high, sales of new being made at 9½ a 10½ cents for shoulders and sides, lard 12½ a 13 cents in kegs. In February lard sold at 11 a 11½ cents in kegs, bbls. at 10 cents. Dealers soon began to force their stock on the market, and in April sides sold at 7½ and shoulders 6½ cents; lard in kegs 10½ cents, and bbls. 9½ cents. The market improved somewhat toward the middle of May, when prices were, shoulders 6½ a 7 cents; sides 8 a 8½ cents; lard in bbls. 9½ cents, and in kegs 10½ cents. In June the dullness continued. July opened with some speculation in lard, which was 11 cents for bbls., 12 cents in kegs, and there was a better feeling in the market for all descriptions. Toward the close of summer the stock of bacon became much reduced, and prices stiffened somewhat, and in October sides sold at 8½ a 8, and shoulders 7½ a 8 cents. The year closed with shoulders and sides at 8 cents, lard 10½ a 10½ cents for kegs, and 9½ a 9½ for bbls.

The stock remaining on hand January 1st, 1854, was as follows: Mess pork, old and new, 1,400 bbls.; lard, 650 bbls. and 800 kegs; bulk-meat, 150 hhds. sides; no hams or shoulders worthy of mention.

SPIRITS. The only article under this head possessed of any especial interest during the past year has been, as usual, French brandies. The second failure of the vintage in the several districts of production has caused advances equally worthy of note as those to which we alluded in our last annual statement. About the middle of January last there were large orders filled here on Philadelphia account for Cognac and Rochelle, vintage of 1851. The quotations at that time were, Hennessy, &c., \$2 70 a 4; Alex. Seignette, \$2; T. Faure & Co., \$2 60 a 4. In the Eastern markets there continued to be an urgent speculative demand during the following month, and numerous orders were received without being filled. The last week in February Cognacs had advanced to \$2 90 a 4, at which they continued until the beginning of August, when Hennessy was quoted at \$3 a 5 per gallon, in consequence of the reported bad prospect of the current year's grape crop; from that period until the present there has been a steady advance, although the demand in general has not been very active, the continued unfavorable advices from abroad being almost wholly the cause of the remarkably high prices that now prevail. Holders are still firm, and we see no reason to doubt considerably higher rates within the next two months. Hennessy is now selling at \$3 85 a 6; Roulet & Co., \$3 75; and Alex. Seignette, \$3 a 3 10 per gallon.

SUGAR. During the past year our market for this article has presented but few features worthy of special note. It opened dull in January, and remained rather inactive until the close of that month, when the demand improved, though prices continued to rule low, varying but slightly for several months following. In April, under large receipts, the market was well sustained, which it continued to be throughout the spring months, declining somewhat in June, and continuing dull and inactive for several weeks. In July the market assumed more firmness, with some disposition to take hold on speculation; prices improved a shade, the stock being light, and the market ruled firm during the summer and fall months, but the transactions were of a very limited character during the residue of the year, on account of the very light stock on hand, which on the 1st instant was 900 hhds. The stock on hand January 1st, 1853, was 2,225 hhds. Total imports (from West Indies and Louisiana) in 1853, 23,913 hhds., against 25,228 hhds. in the year 1852—being 1,315 hhds. less. First receipts of new crop New Orleans last year were on the 1st of December, and this year on the 21st do. First of new crop Cuba early in February, and of Porto Rico on the 2d March. The crop of Louisiana last year was the largest ever made in that State, amounting to 321,934 hhds., and exceeded the crop of 1851 by 95,000 hhds. From present prospects the crop of 1853 will be even larger than ever. It is anticipated that our imports of sugar the present year will be much larger, the demand here for refining purposes being likely to require a great increase.

	STOCKS.		PRICES.			
	Hhds.	New Orleans.	Porto Rico.	Cuba.		
January 1.....	2,225	\$4 75 a 6 00	\$6 50 a 6 75	a 5 00	
February 1.....	2,476	4 75 a 6 00	5 50 a 6 50	a 5 00	
March 1.....	2,357	4 37½ a 6 00	5 25 a 6 00	a 5 00	
April 1.....	3,046	4 25 a 5 75	4 45 a 6 20	a 5 20	
May 1.....	2,472	4 50 a 5 50	5 00 a 6 25	4 25	a 5 00	
June 1.....	3,722	4 37½ a 5 50	4 75 a 6 20	4 25	a 5 25	
July 1.....	3,687	4 37½ a 5 50	4 50 a 6 00	4 00	a 5 00	
August 1.....	5,509	4 50 a 5 50	4 50 a 6 25	4 50	a 5 25	
September 1.....	5,033	4 62 a 5 62	4 62 a 6 25	4 50	a 5 38	
October 1.....	2,512	4 75 a 5 62	5 00 a 6 25	5 00	a 5 50	
November 1.....	1,902	4 62½ a 5 50	4 75 a 6 00	4 50	a 5 50	
December 1.....	1,248	4 62½ a 5 50	5 00 a 6 00	a	

IMPORTATIONS OF SUGAR AT THE PORT OF BALTIMORE FOR THE LAST FOURTEEN YEARS.

	From New Orleans.		From West Indies.	
	Hhds.	Bbls.	Hhds.	Bbls.
1840.....	7,483	233	8,007	1,905
1841.....	4,184	11	8,750	4,006
1842.....	6,103	264	10,823	1,253
1843.....	7,642	741	7,483	735
1844.....	5,172	114	10,885	436
1845.....	12,602	413	5,161	209
1846.....	9,845	517	6,541	224
1847.....	6,013	183	18,240	4,236
1848.....	10,279	3,268	14,841	2,398
1849.....	9,851	2,384	12,570	5,654
1850.....	11,066	3,146	11,454	1,420
1851.....	7,174	3,432	16,782	2,542
1852.....	13,153	307	12,619	2,653
1853.....	10,476	383	2,006	13,967

TOBACCO. The stock of leaf in our State warehouses on the 1st of January 1853, was 11,960 hhds. The inspections during the year amounted to 48,667 hhds., which, added to the stock on hand January 1st, 1853, together with receipts from the District of Columbia (not inspected,) 600 hhds., makes the total supply 61,227 hhds. Of this quantity there have been shipped, as shown by the statement annexed, 50,688 hhds., leaving stock on hand 1st inst., 10,539 hhds.—being 1,421 hhds. less than the stock of same date last year. The exports show a decrease compared with those of 1852 of 4,125 hhds., being principally in the shipments to Bremen, France, and England, whilst to Holland there is an increase of 3,838 hhds.

Our market for Maryland ruled dull in the beginning of the year, at the following prices:—ordinary to good do. \$4 a 4 50, good middling to fine \$5 50 a 7; the stock at this period was very light and vessels were scarce and obtainable only at high freights, to which causes the dullness was mainly owing. In April the stock in State warehouses was reduced to 9,000 hhds., with less than 1,000 hhds., in factors' hands, the balance being held by shippers; operations, consequently, continued much restricted. Toward the close of that month, however, the receipts improved and more activity ensued; prices also slightly advanced, particularly for inferior to good common, the range being, inferior to good common \$4 a 5, fair to middling \$5 25 a 6, seconds \$4 75 a 6 50, good to fine brown \$6 50 a 7 50; fine brown \$7 50 a 9. Throughout the rest of the Spring the market continued very active, the receipts being taken by shippers as fast as offered, and prices were firmly maintained. Toward the close of June accounts began to come in from all parts of the country, of injury to the growing crop from the drought. The weather continued unfavorable for planting, and with light receipts in July, holders grew firmer and prices improved, the sales early in August being made at \$5 75 a 6 for fair crop, and good to fine crop \$6 50, and in September for common to good ordinary \$5 50 a 6, middling \$6 25 a 6 75, good to fine brown \$6 75 a 7 50, and fine do. \$7 50 a 9. These prices continued to rule, under a very active demand, until October, when the market sustained a check by an advance in freights; this state of things continuing, prices declined in November about 50 cts. per 100, but toward the close of that month a better feeling prevailed, and the demand increasing, former prices were recovered, the quotations being for common to ordinary \$5 25 a 6, middling \$6 a 6 50, good to fine brown \$6 50 a 7 25, fine selections \$8 a 9, ground leaves \$5 a 6, which are the rates now ruling. In both Maryland and Virginia the fall weather was very favorable for the curing of the leaf, and the crops will no doubt be brought to market the coming season in much better condition. We learn from the most reliable data that the crop of Maryland for 1853 will not exceed 25,000 hhds., or about 5,000 hhds. less than that of the previous year.

The market for Ohio opened last spring with considerable sales to the con-

tractor for France at the low average of \$5, which price ruled till about the middle of June, when accounts of the excessive drought began to reach us from all parts of the tobacco growing regions of the West, and prices gradually improved till about the 1st of October, reaching the average of \$6 a 6 25. The market then declined about 25 cts., with sales, but improved in November, and nearly the entire stock in the hands of the agents was sold, prices closing as high as at any time during the summer. The new crop was estimated in the early part of the fall at about 13,000 hhds., but as the dealers in Ohio have now made their purchases, a more correct opinion can be formed, and the most sanguine believe that the receipts at this port next year will not exceed 9,000 hhds., or less than half an average crop. Should France require only half her usual supply in 1854 and no European war exist, high prices may be calculated upon.

The receipts of Kentucky this year have been about twice as large as those of 1852, and although it has been a season of high prices, and other considerations have operated against us, yet the charges in Baltimore for inspection, storage, and commissions, and the prices obtained, have been so satisfactory, Western shippers seem entirely pleased with this market and satisfied with their returns. We may, therefore, look with confidence for a healthy and regular increase of our trade in this important staple.

TOBACCO STATEMENT.

SHOWING THE QUANTITY IN THE SEVERAL WAREHOUSES ON THE 1ST OF JANUARY, 1853, THE INSPECTIONS BY EACH HOUSE FOR THE YEAR ENDING DECEMBER 31, DELIVERIES FOR THE SAME PERIOD, AND STOCK ON HAND JANUARY 1, 1854.

State Tobacco Warehouses.	No. 1.	No. 2.	No. 3.	No. 4.	No. 5.	Total.
Stock January 1, 1853	2,142	1,869	1,882	3,124	2,948	11,960
Inspections of 1853.....	10,678	9,865	8,714	7,583	11,827	48,667
Total.....	12,820	11,734	10,596	10,707	14,770	60,627
Deliveries in 1853.....	11,404	10,564	9,077	8,351	11,452	50,848
Stock January 1, 1854	1,416	1,170	1,519	2,356	3,318	9,779

NOTE.—Add Tobacco on shipboard not cleared, 760 hhds., and the total stock on hand, January 1, 1854, will be 10,539 hhds.

THE FOLLOWING STATEMENT SHOWS THE STOCK IN WAREHOUSES ON THE 1ST OF JANUARY, 1853, AND THE QUANTITY OF EACH KIND INSPECTED FOR THE YEAR ENDING DECEMBER 31.

Stock in warehouses January 1, 1853.....	hhds	11,960
Inspections from January 1, to December 31, 1853, viz:—		
Maryland	29,248	
Ohio	17,947	
Kentucky.....	1,380	
Virginia	78	
Pennsylvania	14	
		48,667
To which add received from District of Columbia, and not inspected.....		600
		49,267
EXPORTED 1853.		61,227
To Bremen	18,947	
To Amsterdam.....	9,980	
To Rotterdam.....	10,395	
To France.....	5,880	
To Trieste.....	1,619	
To England	2,773	
All other ports, including coastwise	1,594	
		50,688
Stock on hand January 1, 1854.....		10,539

Manufactured Tobacco. The receipts of this article within the past year have been sufficient to meet a very large increased and increasing demand in our market, dealers who have been in the habit of going eastward for their purchases, having found stocks here not only well assorted but of a character to meet any demand. Prices within the past few months have not been remunerating to manufacturers, but the probability of their doing a materially curtailed business during the present year, the high prices of the raw material and the firmness of the markets in Virginia, together with large European orders for that article, incline us to the belief that better prices may be obtained for the manufactured article before the closing out of the present stock on our market. We quote—

Fancy tobacco	50c. a	\$2 00
Pound lumps, No. 1 brands.....	30 a	40
“ medium	20 a	28
“ common.....	10 a	18
Best Brands, 5's, 8's, and 10's lump.....	17 a	22
Medium.....	14 a	16
Common.....	10 a	13
16's, 18's, and 20's, lump.....	8 a	10
Ladies' twist and best $\frac{1}{2}$ lb. rolls	21 a	25

WHISKY. We are, as usual, at a loss to determine the exact amount of business done in this article during the year. From what information we have been enabled to glean from several very reliable sources, however, we are justified in stating that the receipts have amounted to but little short of 146,000 bbls., from Pennsylvania, New York, and Ohio, and inclusive of the business done by the four city distilleries. The following is as close an estimate as we are enabled to make of the receipts at present, and although not wholly derived from direct data, may be relied upon as very nearly correct. Those set down as per railroads and the Tide-Water Canal are right as far as they go:—

Baltimore & Susquehannah Railroad.....	bbls.	29,904
Baltimore & Ohio Railroad.....		12,156
Susquehannah & Tide-Water Canal		12,698
Coastwise vessels.....		25,000
Wagons.....		6,000
Turned out by city distilleries.....		60,000

Total receipts — 145,758

PRICES OF RAW WHISKY IN BARRELS AT BALTIMORE, ON THE 1ST AND 15TH OF EACH MONTH OF 1853.

	Cents.		Cents.
January 1st	21 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 23	15th.....	24 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 25
February 1st	24 a 24 $\frac{1}{2}$	15th.....	23 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 24
March 1st	23 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 24	15th.....	22 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 23
April 1st.....	23 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 24	15th.....	22 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 23
May 1st.....	22 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 23	15th.....	22 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 23
June 1st	22 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 23	15th.....	22 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 23
July 1st.....	23 a 23 $\frac{1}{2}$	15th.....	28 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 24
August 1st.	26 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 27	15th.....	26 a 26 $\frac{1}{2}$
September st.....	26 a 26 $\frac{1}{2}$	15th.....	29 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 30
October 1st.....	28 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 29	15th.....	32 a 32 $\frac{1}{2}$
November 1st.....	30 a 31	15th.....	27 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 28
December 1st.....	27 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 28	15th.....	27 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 28

WOOL. The total receipts of this article, of both foreign and domestic growth, amount to about 900,000 lbs., of which 250,000 lbs. was foreign, (all from Peru,) 100,000 lbs. Western fine fleece, 300,000 washed and unwashed, a part from the West and the balance from our own State, and about 250,000 lbs. pulled in this city. It was anticipated, early in the season, that there would be a short crop, and the market advanced considerably in consequence, but the result proving contrary to the general supposition, prices receded toward the close. As regards the prospects for the coming year, there is a probability that the market

will rule rather low, as the high prices which growers have been obtaining within the last several months induced them to turn their attention more especially to the raising of sheep than for some time past, and the supply of wool will be considerably larger in 1854 than usual. Another thing which will operate somewhat against wool is the proposed change in the tariff during the present session of Congress, which will admit the lowest grades into this country free of charge. The wool interest is as yet in its infancy in our country, and although we do not assume to be learned in the matter, we conceive that the contemplated change, whatever it may do for the manufacturers of woolen fabrics, who are as yet comparatively few in number, can inure to no particular benefit to our agricultural interests. With studious care on the part of our legislators, the production of wool in the United States may one day become a source of incalculable wealth and prosperity. The value of the foreign wools, such as are affected by this modification, which were imported the last fiscal year into the United States, was \$674,111—the amount of duty, 35 per cent, was over \$200,000. This item is intended to be imported in competition with our native common wools, and we cannot but conjecture that the immediate effect would be to discourage, in a great measure, that favorable feeling which now prevails amongst so large a portion of our farmers for the raising of sheep, and which has of late been stimulated by legislative enactments in a number of our States. The statistics of the trade show a large increase in the quantities of native growth brought to market, and that our people are yearly giving more attention to the subject.

FREIGHTS. Vessels of every description have been greatly in demand during the past year, as the large number required for California, Australia, and East India voyages, and the extraordinary crop of cotton, sugar, &c., in Louisiana, as well as the great foreign demand for our breadstuffs, gave employment to an unprecedented amount of tonnage. The rates, consequently, have been gradually improving. Our large receipts of coal and grain have likewise required an increased amount of tonnage, and created for the most of the year a very active demand for coasting vessels at good remunerating rates of freight. From these causes an extraordinary amount of business has been prosecuted in our ship yards, and a large increase made to the tonnage of the port.

HIGHEST AND LOWEST RATES OF FREIGHT ON FLOUR TO LIVERPOOL IN 1853.

	Highest.				Lowest.			
	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.
January.....	4		4	8	4		a.	.
February.....	4		a.	.	2	6	a.	.
March.....	3	6	a.	.	3		a.	.
April.....	3		a.	.	2	9	a.	.
May.....	2	8	a.	.	2	8	a.	6
June.....	2	3	a.	.	2	8	a.	.
July.....	2	6	a.	.	2		a.	.
August.....	3	6	a.	.	3		a.	.
September.....	3	6	a.	.	3		a.	.
October.....	3	10	a.	.	3		a.	.
November.....	4	6	a.	.	3	6	a.	.
December.....	5		a.	.	4		a.	.

INSPECTIONS OF FISH AT BALTIMORE IN 1853.

	1853.		1852.		1851.	
	No. 1.	No. 2.	No. 3.	Condem'd.	Total.	Total.
Mackerel.....bbls.	547	542	9,493	1,174	11,756	20,581
".....halves	197	237	1,223	26	1,683	5,513
Herrings.....bbls.	26,758	465	8,492	35,715	28,348
".....halves	1,841	15	66	1,922	1,608
Shad.....bbls.	5,877	276	55	6,208	4,702
".....halves.	905	22	927	726
Codfish.....bbls.	186	10	196	278
Salmon.....	77	78	57
Scalefish.....	10	10	22
Whitefish.....	18	18

ART. IV.—SUBMARINE BLASTING.

Few late discoveries promise to be of more practical utility to Commerce and navigation than that of the system of *submarine blasting*, by Mons Maillefert, now in successful operation in the United States. One of the very first tests imposed upon its power, has resulted in an achievement which establishes its reputation upon a *rock*. HELL GATE, the formidable obstruction in the eastern outlet from the city of New York, where lives uncounted and property unestimated have been sacrificed to the insatiable genius of the whirlpool, was the object of this trial; and the issue is, that Hell Gate has yielded—is destroyed, annihilated. Its sharp boulders have been broken down, its boiling pot has ceased to rage and foam, its violent eddies have been converted into mere ripples. The terrors that for over two centuries have frowned upon the navigators of the Sound and the East River have vanished forever, and their comparatively safe locality will hereafter be pointed out only as the scene of dangers that *have been*.

As an historical account of an invention destined to so important a use will be of general interest, we have obtained from Mr. Maillefert a statement of the circumstances of the discovery, and of the several operations in which it has since been employed.

Mr. Benjamin Maillefert, by birth a Frenchman, came from England, where he had for some time resided, in 1846, to Nassau, in the island of New Providence, one of the Bahamas. Being of an active turn, he had previously passed a life of considerable adventure, a decided spice of romance being mixed up in his career. While residing at New Providence, in 1847, the ship *Sybella*, of Boston, loaded with cotton, iron, &c., ran upon some rocks at the Berry Islands, which belong to the Bahama group, and sunk. Mr. Maillefert undertook to blow up the wreck, in order to enable the divers to get at her cargo, and to save the copper from her bottom. The charges were placed, in the usual way, under the ship's bottom, and between her planks and the underlying rock. Eighty charges were fired in this manner, doing little execution upon the hulk. But he was surprised to discover, in the course of this operation, that while the vessel was thus slightly injured, the rock was very materially affected. This suggested to him a new mode of procedure. A charge was placed upon the upper part of the vessel, and there fired, as an experiment, and the result was that by the single explosion thus made the vessel was completely shivered into fragments.

A new principle was evolved, but one of such simplicity as to carry its own explanation with the very first observation of its effect. The idea has always prevailed, that to break up a rock or other ponderable body, beneath the surface of the water, by the force of gunpowder, it was necessary to place the charge underneath the substance to be demolished, or, where this was impracticable, to find the means of inserting it within the body of the substance itself, necessitating, in most cases, a laborious, tedious, and expensive system of drilling. This method is affected by a thousand difficulties and contingencies, which have rendered it, to a very great extent, inefficient—often entirely impossible of application.

The mistake of this idea was its assimilation of very different cases—applying the same theory to the bottom of the sea that is held in regard to the surface of the land. If a large quantity of powder is exploded upon the face of the ground, or upon the upper side of a rock, exposed to the air, the

great bulk of the force is dissipated in the atmosphere, and very little proportional execution upon the earth or rock is effected. Water, being like air, a fluid, and easily displaced, the principle governing the one was readily extended to the other, and to a superficial view there were not wanting abundant facts to justify the idea of the extreme transmissibility of water to any force exerted upon or within it.

We are not to wonder that this error was so long entertained, although it would seem, *now*, that a very little reflection should have led to the perception of the truth. Every one knew then, as well as at this time, that even air has the quality of gravity; that it furnishes a pressure really very great upon all bodies at the surface of the earth; that to displace large masses of it suddenly, with all its elasticity, the exercise of great force is required; and that in the explosion upon the face of the rock, or on the ground, the part of the force exercised upon these, solely in consequence of the resistance of the air, is, though comparatively small, yet sufficient to cause a displacement of matter and an agitation of the earth around, in a due proportion to the measure of force elicited. Every one knew, also, that the density of water is far greater than that of air, that large bodies of water possess vast weight, equal to about one-third their bulk of solid earth. The facts had been often heard, that a human body, or other object which floats on the surface of water, at a certain distance below the surface can never rise again; and that at the bottom of a very deep sea the pressure is so great, as to force the water through the pores of a glass bottle. Not a man but has observed the rapid accumulation of force, as the water deepens, in the attempt to dam up even a very small stream, or wondered at the great power of the waterfall, a very small moiety of the force of which sets the great mill, with all its wheels, levers, and complication of machinery, in full action. Every one had witnessed the remarkable strength of the tides, and had heard of or with awe beheld the sublime energy of a whirlpool. In addition, also, to its superior power and weight over the air, the inelasticity, and of course, the incompressibility of water, were well known. It was understood that whatever pressure were applied to it, it would not, like the atmosphere, yield to the force by a ready contraction of bulk, but would resist the effort, until the latter were sufficient to remove it bodily. But while knowing all these facts, and while proper inferences from these might so easily have been drawn, *appearances* were so decidedly in favor of the other idea that it was, by learned and unlearned alike, received as an unquestioned truth. Philosophers, indeed, might have admitted, had the thought ever occurred to their minds, that a heavy explosion at the bottom of the sea, in its very deepest parts, would be as likely to tear up the hard substance, and to demolish rocks even, as to displace the contiguous waters. But that in shallow or moderate depths, any such effect would be produced, argument would have been entirely incompetent to convince them.

The resisting force offered by a superincumbent mass of water, at the point of desired operation, is, then, the apparent principle upon which the theory of Mr. Maillefert is based, and is for all practical purposes the essential point. It is the actual extent of the discovery. But there is combined with this principle the extension of another old one, viz., that of the concentric nature of the force generated by explosion. It is to the latter principle that the results effected under the theory are really in the main part due. The philosophic fact in the discovery is not the finding and application of a resisting force, before unknown, but it is in proving the much in-

ferior degree of resisting power, compared with the measure of the old idea, which it is necessary should meet a concentric force on one side, in order to give it efficiency against a fixed object at the other. The tendency of explosive power is to burst forth with equal violence in all directions; and, although obstacles may turn any segment of this energy aside, throwing the main part into a channel of easier access, the obstacle itself must always, when near, even where escape is most easy, sustain the shock of a considerable part of the force primarily directed upon it, which of course is subtracted from the element turned into the new channel. A slight obstruction in the other avenues, though speedily removed, gives opportunity for the expenditure upon the fixed body of an additional force much disproportioned to the magnitude of the obstacle itself. The latter becomes a fulcrum affecting the motion of a power of perhaps a thousand times its own weight. It is as when a man runs over a field of thin ice which but for the motion of his body could not for an instant sustain his weight. A very small obstacle to the escape of the charge from a cannon, a little irregularity in loading, is often sufficient to burst the thick iron: and a certain quantity of powder fired upon the surface of the hardest rock in the most exposed situation possible toward the air, would rend it in fragments, and scatter the parts past regathering. The strongest exercise of the force generated by an explosion is effected upon a fixed object, and never upon a moveable one. But a fraction of the power which at first meets the latter is expended upon it, for besides wanting fulcrum, it is rapidly scattered by the facility of continual divergence. An explosion confined within a tube forms no exception; for the barrel of the gun, although intended to direct and transmit the force, sustains a greater power than is imparted to the ball. With the knowledge of these facts before existing, conjoined to those mentioned in regard to the water, there would be occasion of astonishment that it was left to a man born so late as Mr. Maillefert to make the discovery he did, were we not aware how near men may approach toward a fact, how many of its antecedents and relatives they become intimate with, and yet without any more blindness than attaches to the general nature of man, never once recognize the fact itself.

The principles we have thus endeavored to illustrate, explain the phenomena of the ship and the rock. The former, formed of much softer material than the latter, with her bottom quite as low beneath the water as the parts of the rock affected, and therefore subjected to the same pressure from above, and being quite as contiguous to the explosions, escapes with less injury from eighty successive charges, from her ability of rising in the water and allowing the force to part—a portion passing under her bottom, the rest escaping up her side, and from the water dividing with her the shock of the force.

Such was the effect of a force having a fixed fulcrum, but directed against a moveable object, aided even by that part of the power turned upward from the rock, although the vessel, with her weighty cargo, would to ordinary forces have been herself a complete fixity. But with the vessel and water above as a fulcrum, although moveable, and the fixed rock as the object, the execution was very considerable. When the charge was placed upon the upper side of the vessel, although the fulcrum was so much reduced, being only the depth of water above the vessel, which could not have been much probably at that place, the vessel had become the fixed

object, and the consequence was her annihilation at the first discharge so made.

The first attempt made by Mr. Maillefert, after the discovery thus effected, to apply it to the demolition of the obstacles of the sea, was directed against a coral reef called Rockfish Shoal, at the mouth of Nassau harbor. This shoal was about 200 feet in length and 70 feet wide, with an average depth of about 11 feet only, forming a very serious impediment to the harbor, and greatly endangering navigation. In four months he had removed over 900 tons of rock, and had deepened the water over the whole bed of the shoal to 18 feet, giving a safe and convenient entrance to and egress from the harbor.

Mr. Maillefert now determined to repair to the United States, and within the United States to visit first New York, with the idea of making his second great effort at the famous Hell Gate. He reached the city in October, 1849, and laid his propositions before some of the leading merchants.

Of the nature of the obstruction at Hell Gate, it is unnecessary to give here a particular description, as an account was published in the *Merchants' Magazine* no longer since than in September, 1852. Suffice it to say, that it was formed of a series of rocks and reefs of a most formidable character, dividing the channel into several crooked and narrow branches, and occasioning a fearful whirlpool, beside several strong eddies. It was always an object of great importance that this obstacle should, if possible, be overcome, as in that case a second channel to and from New York, accessible to the largest ships, would be opened through the Sound, which would be extremely valuable on many accounts—particularly as an avenue to the ocean in case of adverse winds preventing the passage by way of Sandy Hook, or in case of the blockade of the latter during war. Small vessels, and for some years steamboats, have constantly used this passage, but not without much danger. It has been calculated that one in fifty of all vessels attempting it, are more or less injured, and the number passing is sometimes 200 or 300 in a single day. Even steamboats have narrowly escaped wrecking here. Small boats have been frequently upset and lives lost. No one can estimate the amount of life and property destroyed here from the outset. Yet, from the days of Dutch dominion until the year 1849, nobody had thought of undertaking the removal of so terrible an evil. To the old system, the very attempt was utterly impracticable. It was impossible to fix any apparatus for drilling near any of the rocks. Amid all the wealth, energies, and enterprise of New York, she was obliged to tolerate the existence of such a plague at her very door. Amid all the improvements of art and science, amid all the speculations even of visionaries, no plan appeared for opening the highway thus barricaded.

By the greater part of those to whom the scheme of Mr. Maillefert was at first introduced, it was treated as of the wildest and most absurd character. Their skepticism was not unreasonable. The attempt was so great and the plan so novel, that it is no cause of wonder that men were not ready to give it their confidence. But there were some intelligent merchants and others, to whom he applied, who were soon convinced that the plan proposed was worth trial. By the favor of these individuals, Mr. Maillefert was enabled to commence and carry forward his operations.

The work commenced on the 19th of August, 1851. Up to December 12th, when operations were suspended by the cold, there had been fired on Pot Rock, the principal obstruction, 301 charges, being a total of 27,981

pounds of powder, at an expense of about \$6,000. The rock was a conical-shaped boulder of about 60 feet high, and at the depth of 24 feet, 25 by 75 feet area. The depth of water had been extended in this time from about 8 to about 17 feet. Another rock, called Bald-Headed Billy, 16 feet long and 10 wide, had been also dislodged and carried into deep water, and two other dangerous rocks demolished. Eleven charges had also been exploded upon the Frying Pan, and seven upon Way's Reef, with good effect.

In February, 1852, operations were resumed and continued to March 26, when Mr. Maillefert was wounded by the accidental explosion of a canister, containing 125 lbs. of powder, in his boat. In June he recommenced, and continued his operations at intervals. Up to this time there had been broken and removed about 40,000 cubic feet of the very hard kind of rock called gneiss. There was 18 feet 3 inches of water at Pot Rock, and the depth of water on Way's Reef, the Frying Pan, Shelldrake Rock, and Diamond Reef, between the Battery and Governor's Island, was also more or less increased.

The improvement effected at this time was thought by many to be quite sufficient, the whirlpool having entirely disappeared, and the eddies having mostly subsided; but operations have since continued at intervals, and it is probable that before they cease entirely, all trace of the former dangers will be eradicated. It is worthy of remark here, that while all these operations have been going on, they have not in the slightest degree interrupted navigation.

A final survey was to be made at the close of operations the late season, the result of which Mr. Maillefert could not foretell with certainty; but from what he had had an opportunity of observing during the operations, he was under the impression that there would be very few if any spots covered with less than 22 feet of water at low tide, and that a considerable portion of the rock had been broken down to a depth of 24 feet, to which depth it is designed to reduce the whole surface. The area of the rock enlarges at each step downward, but the increased depth of water affords additional power of execution. It is probable that all necessary operations further, at this point, will be completed in the course of the next season.

Several months since Mr. Maillefert undertook operations upon Middle Rock, in Long Island Sound, about one mile from the lighthouse at New Haven, with the design of improving the entrance to that harbor. He has since then fired 94 charges upon that rock, demolishing a portion of it. Owing to the approach of cold weather, the completion of the work has been deferred to the next spring and summer.

There is a befriending power provided, which the interests of Commerce and navigation have long earnestly demanded. There is abundant opportunity for its exercise upon the long line of our coast, and in the multitude of our harbors. The same expenditure which is necessary to build and maintain light houses, to warn the mariner of these dangers, which warning affords never more than a partial security, and is often given utterly in vain, would, in most cases, entirely demolish the danger itself. As well as detached rocks, reefs, banks formed of shells and other like material, coral formations, &c., the plan is applicable in many cases to supposed sand-bars, where a hidden nucleus of rock or other hard substance may be found, which is very often the case where the entire obstacle is thought to consist in the drift of sand.

In the improvement of our western rivers and lakes, this system is destined

to be of especial service. Those great water-ways are sadly in need of the action of such an agent, as any one may see who refers to the yearly losses of steamboats and other vessels, by snags, sawyers, and all the family of dangers that lurk beneath their channels. From almost its own outset has the government been urged to take upon its hands, as a national object, the scheme of clearing out these waters; but, though well disposed, the successive administrations, alarmed at the magnitude of the project, beholding here the sink of an immeasurable revenue, have shrunk from the enterprise under the plea of constitutional inability—only one President, J. Q. Adams, having been disposed to take hold of the project in earnest. But the occasion of that fear is now greatly mitigated, and it is in the power of the government, or of private enterprise, or what is better, a combination of both, to effect, at a moderate expense, great improvements in these waters. The Mississippi and its tributaries may, by blasting, combined with dragging and dredging, be made as safe as the Hudson or Penobscot. We are glad to see that Mr. Maillefert has already turned his attention to that quarter, and that he has gone this winter to Alexandria, in the State of Louisiana, to make an effort upon several ledges of rock in the Red River, causing the falls and rapids in that stream. He expects to annihilate both rock and rapids, by which means a clear passage will be opened up the river to Nachitoches, through all seasons.

We are glad to hear, also, that some of the diplomatic agents of foreign governments within the United States, have made inquiries about the system and its success, with a view to its trial in different parts of Europe. So long ago as October, 1851, the attention of Chevalier Steen de Bille, Charge d'Affaires of Denmark, was attracted, and he addressed a note to Prof. Bache, of the U. S. Engineers, requesting information on the subject.

In conclusion, we have simply to express the hope that a man who has not only the quick comprehension to make the discovery, but also the energy to carry it into practical execution, with success full and uninterrupted, will find that reward to which his services in behalf of human life and property so eminently entitle him.

JOURNAL OF MERCANTILE LAW.

ACTION TO RECOVER FOR LOSS AND DAMAGE BY OWNERS OF A SHIP, FOR NON-FULFILLMENT OF A CHARTER PARTY.

In United States Circuit Court, 1853, before Chief Justice NELSON. Decision on an appeal from Judge BETTS. William R. Beecher and others, vs. George J. Beckhel and others.

This libel was filed to recover compensation for the loss and damage sustained by the owners of the ship *Buenavento*, for the non-fulfilment of a charter party entered into by the respondents. The vessel, which was of two hundred and fifty tons burden, was chartered on the 2d October, 1849, to carry a cargo of lumber and timber from Charleston, S. C., to Barcelona, Spain. The owners engaged that the whole of the vessel, except the part necessary for the accommodation of the officers and crew, the stowage of sails, cables, and provisions, should be at the disposal of the charterers, who agreed to furnish a full and complete cargo of lumber and timber for the voyage, and to pay for the freight \$11 per thousand superficial feet, with five per cent primage. The cargo was to

be delivered and received alongside of the vessel, within reach of her tackle. The charter was to commence when the vessel was ready to receive the cargo at her place of loading, and notice thereof given.

The vessel, in pursuance of the charter party, arrived at the port of Charleston on the 14th of the month, ready to receive her cargo; and after having received on board a considerable portion of it, the agent of the shippers delivered, for the purpose of being shipped on board, two large masts or spars—the one twenty-seven inches in diameter, and the other twenty-eight inches—round timbers, and sixty feet in length. The lumber was received through a square port in the forward part of the ship called the bow-port, and which could not receive timber of the length and dimensions of these spars, the port being only twenty-four inches square, which would not receive timber of the length of the spars exceeding twenty-two inches in diameter.

The port-hole was of the usual size for vessels of the burden of the *Buenovento*. The master having waited some sixty-three days in all for lumber and timber suitable to the size and capacity of the vessel, and the agent of the shippers refusing to furnish other lumber till the spars were taken on board, insisting that the port-hole should be enlarged so as to receive them, landed the portion of the cargo on board, in pursuance of orders from the owners in New York, and left for another port, in ballast, after full notice to the agent of his intention so to do, unless the cargo of the ship was completed.

A good deal of evidence has been taken on both sides upon the point, whether or not the port-pole could have been enlarged without injury to the strength, and affecting the seaworthiness of the vessel. It is exceedingly doubtful upon the evidence, whether or not the necessary alteration could be made without permanently disabling and rendering her unseaworthy, and the expense varied from \$15 to \$300, according to the estimate of the witnesses. I shall not undertake to weigh this evidence, either as it respects the question of the practicability of the alteration, or the cost of it; for, in my judgment, the owners, upon any just and proper construction of the charter party, were neither bound to make or to submit to the required change. The charter was entered into in this city, and the vessel lay in this port at the time, affording the charterers an opportunity to make any examination of her they might desire. Her tonnage is specified, and the only covenants entered into in respect to her character and condition by the owners are, that she shall be seaworthy, and that during the voyage she shall be kept tight, staunch, well fitted, tackled, and provided with every requisite, and with men and provisions necessary for the voyage; and to receive on board the vessel all such lawful goods and merchandise as the charterers may see fit to ship; to be properly stowed by the ship's crew, or other suitable persons the captain may employ at the ship's expense; the charterers agreeing to furnish a full and complete cargo of lumber and timber.

I agree, if the owners had undertaken to convey from Charleston to Barcelona a given quantity of lumber and timber generally, for a specified price, that they would have been bound to have furnished a vessel that could have received and shipped any description of the article mentioned, which, according to the usage and custom of the trade, was ordinarily shipped at that port. Such would have been the fair and reasonable import of the contract. But here no such contract has been entered into. They have simply chartered their vessel, and have stipulated that the whole of it, with the exceptions stated, shall be at the sole use and disposal of the charterers during the voyage; and that no goods or merchandise whatever shall be laden on board otherwise than from them or their agents, without their consent. It is an agreement, therefore, on the part of the owners, not that they will convey from and to the ports mentioned a given amount of lumber or timber for the price mentioned, but that the vessel named shall be employed for the particular voyage in the conveyance of this article. It seems to me, therefore, clear, that the undertaking of the charterers is to furnish a cargo at the port designated, of such lumber as was suitable to the capacity and condition of the ship, and that it would be carrying the contract beyond the intent and scope of it to consider it the same as an agreement to convey a

given quantity of the article generally, and without regard to the means of the conveyance.

Such evidence has been given tending to show that it is not unusual to enlarge port-holes of vessels employed in the conveyance of lumber, to enable them to receive on board spars of the size of those delivered in this case. But the evidence is slight, and does not approach to the establishment of a usage or custom in the trade, especially not in the case of a charter party like the one in question. It may well be that the owners, entering into an engagement generally to convey a given quantity of lumber and timbers, might find it necessary to alter materially the construction of their vessel, to enable them to comply with the terms and conditions of their obligation, as under such a charter they would be bound to carry any description of the article within the usage and custom of the trade. Under such a contract there would be no reference to any particular vessel or mode of conveyance, but as in the present case, where a particular ship has been chartered for the conveyance of a cargo of lumber, the obligation is different; the charterers are bound to regard the capacity and condition of the vessel in respect to the cargo to be furnished.

I agree that changes of a temporary character as it respects the interior of the vessel, such as may be usual and customary in the trade for the accommodation of the cargo, may be proper and the duty of the owners; but changes like the present, affecting her safety and seaworthiness, and thereby permanently lessening her value, it seems to me cannot be regarded as falling within the contract; and this, even assuming that the question may be matter of doubt whether the damage to the vessel be or be not serious and permanent. The contract, in my judgment, does not impose upon the owners the hazard of the contingency supposed.

Upon the view, therefore, I am obliged to take of the case, I think the decree below erroneous and should be reversed, and the case be referred to the clerk to ascertain the loss and damage sustained by the libellants.

LEGAL RESPONSIBILITY OF FATHERS.

A father is not responsible for the business debts of an infant child—i. e., a child under twenty-one—nor is he ordinarily responsible for food, clothing, or other necessities furnished the infant by third parties. In the case mentioned, therefore, the father would not be liable to the son's creditors. The debts of the son would be voidable obligations, which might be ratified after he became of age; in which case judgment could be recovered thereon against the son by his creditors. There is much popular error on the subject of a parent's liability for the debts of his sons under age. A parent is under a natural obligation to furnish necessities for his infant children, and if he neglect that duty, any other person who supplies necessities is deemed to have conferred a benefit on the delinquent parent, for which the law raises an implied promise to pay on the part of the parent; but what is actually necessary will depend on the precise situation of the infant, and which the party giving the credit must be acquainted with at his peril. No man can take upon himself to dictate what clothing a child shall wear, at what time they shall be purchased, or of whom. On this subject Chancellor Kent holds the following language:—

"A father is not bound by the contracts of his son even for articles suitable and necessary, unless an actual authority be proved, or the circumstances be sufficient to imply one. Were it otherwise, a father who had an imprudent son might be prejudiced to an indefinite extent. What is necessary for the child is left to the discretion of the parent; and where the infant is under the control of his parent, there must be a clear omission of duty as to necessities before a third person can interfere and furnish them and charge the father. It will always be a question for a jury whether, under the circumstances of the case, the father's authority was to be inferred. If the father suffer the children to remain abroad with their mother, or if he force them from home by severe usage, he is liable for their necessities."

LIBEL FILED TO FORECLOSE MORTGAGE GIVEN BY THE PURCHASER OF A SHIP.

In United States Circuit Court, October, 1853. Before Chief Justice NELSON. Important to mortgagees. *Seba M. Bogert and others vs. the steamboat John Jay*. In this case Chief Justice Nelson delivered the following opinion, on an appeal from the decision of Judge Betts in the court below:—

The libel in this case was filed in the court below to foreclose a mortgage given by the purchaser of the ship, to secure the consideration money. The sale was absolute, and the transfer duly recorded in the office of the collector, and enrolled in the name of the vendee. The mortgage was given back at the time of the execution of the bill of sale, and provided for the payment of the purchase money by installments, some of which had become due previous to the commencement of the suit. The mortgage is set out in the libel, the default of the payments, and concludes with a prayer for a decree that the purchase money be paid or the ship condemned to pay the same. The respondent, George Logan, claims under the vendee and mortgagor. It is not material to state his title more particularly. The court below dismissed the libel for want of jurisdiction, holding that the Admiralty Court possessed no power to entertain proceedings for the foreclosure of mortgages. The case has been brought to this court on appeal from the decree, and a motion is now made to amend the libel so as to change the character and nature of the proceeding from a suit to foreclose a mortgage to a possessory action to recover possession of the ship, on the ground of the general principle that in case of default in the payment of a personal mortgage, the title becomes absolute in the mortgagee. The amendment sought, it will be seen, goes to the gravamen of the matters in controversy, and introduces a new and different subject of litigation from that put forth and contested in the court below. It is possible, from the liberality with which amendments in pleadings are allowed in the courts of original jurisdiction, that if this application had been made to that court, it might have been granted on some terms; but even there, I apprehend, it would have been the exercise of very considerable indulgence to have allowed it. But be that as it may, it is clear we have no authority in this court to make the amendment; for to make it, and entertain the suit, would, obviously, be in effect assuming, not an appellate, but original cognizance of the subject matter of the litigation. The question of title to or right of property in the ship, or the right to the possession of it, all of which would become involved in the controversy if the amendment is made, have never been before the court below, and of course never passed upon by it. In hearing the case, therefore, we should not be sitting as an appellate court. The amendment to the libel allowed by the Court of Appeals in the case of *Houseman vs. the cargo of the North Carolina*, (15 Peters R. 40,) and which was held to be error, was much less effectual in changing the subject of the litigation than the one proposed in this case. Upon this ground, therefore, the motion must be denied. There is also another difficulty in the way of allowing this amendment, and this is, as I am at present advised, it would not remove the objection to the jurisdiction. I am not aware of any case of authority, or of any settled practice or usage of the courts of admiralty in this country, affirming jurisdiction in cases where the title or right of property in ships simply has been in dispute, and where the proceeding has been maintained to recover the possession, except as between part owners; and I shall not be the first to set the precedent. The appropriate remedy is at common law, in an action of trover or replevin, where, in the latter action, if the party seeks to obtain the possession in the first instance, he must give security for the return of the property with damages for the detention, in case he fails. That is a summary remedy, and while it enables the person claiming the title to get immediate possession, it protects the rights of the adverse party. The proceeding in admiralty in a case where the title of the ship or the right to the possession is simply in dispute, and in which the vessel is seized in the first instance, and taken out of the custody and possession of the adverse party, is harsh, and may frequently lead to abuse. There was an instance before me at this session, involving a case of grievous wrong, in which the rightful owner was deprived of the possession

and use of the ship, and is still, and where the libellant was a man of straw, and the owner of course remediless as to the loss of the use of the vessel, besides the heavy expenses incurred in the custody and care of it, pending the litigation. I refer to the case of the ship *Brewer*. This jurisdiction was not exercised by the High Court of Admiralty in England, till conferred upon it by the late act of Parliament, 3 and 4 Victoria chap. 65, 2 Hagg. 305. The *John*, ib. 181. The *Fruit Preserver*, 2 Dodson, 288. The *Warrior*: and see the cases collected in 2 Woodb. and M., 108, 109, 110, 111, 112, and 113, Leland et al. vs. the ship *Medora*. There is some conflict in the cases on this subject in the English Admiralty, but the weight of them is against the jurisdiction. The act of Parliament conferring it contains several regulations providing means possessed by the courts of common law and equity of arriving at the truth and justice of the case, and among others the court is empowered to award issues of fact to be tried before the common law courts. We do not see that there is anything in the question of mere title or right of property in a ship beyond that in the case of any other article of personal property, that should make it the subject of admiralty jurisdiction. The dispute between part owners about the employment of her is a very different matter; so the exercise of the power to dispossess the master who has become disloyal to his owners, and such like cases. No doubt the title may frequently come collaterally in question in cases where the subject matter in dispute is clearly within an admiralty jurisdiction. We are speaking of cases where the subject of controversy is simply the title, or property, in the ship, or right to the possession, disconnected with matters confessedly within admiralty cognizance. As we have looked into the whole of this case, and concur with the court below that it had no jurisdiction, and have also denied the application to amend the libel in this court, we may as well dispose of the case finally, and shall therefore order a decree denying the application for leave to amend, and also, that the decree below be affirmed with costs, leaving the party to go before the proper tribunal at law for redress.

ACTION ON A BILL OF EXCHANGE.

In Nisi Prius Court—August 13, 1853—before Mr. Justice Erle. *Scott vs. Longmore*.

This was an action for a bill of exchange for £200, drawn by George Longmore upon William Longmore, his father, (since dead,) in favor of John Stuart and another, and indorsed by them to the plaintiff, Mr. Henry Scott. The plaintiff, Mr. Atherton, said, in opening the case, was a merchant, and a member of the firm of John Stuart & Co., who carried on business in Manchester, and had a branch establishment at New York. The defendant was a wholesale provision merchant, in Manchester, and the transaction arose in this way. In the year 1847 Mr. Longmore, the defendant, went to the United States, taking with him a letter of credit from his Manchester house, and obtained from the house in New York money to the extent of £2,000, which he covered by two acceptances, each for £1,000. The first of these bills was duly honored; the second the defendant wished to have renewed, and, in consequence, the plaintiff's firm took two bills of £200 each, and another for £600. The latter was still unpaid, and is in the hands of Stuart & Co. at present. One of the bills of £200 each was taken up and honored by the defendant, and it was for the remaining bill for £200 that the present action was brought. The defense was, that the plaintiff himself being the drawer of the bill, though in strict law he would not be liable to an indorsee of that bill unless, the bill having arrived at maturity, it were presented to the person upon whom it was drawn, and, being dishonored, notice were promptly given to the drawer; or unless the drawer, previous to the maturity of the bill, dispensed with the necessity of that presentment. The bill in question undoubtedly was not presented to Mr. Longmore, the father, at maturity. The plaintiffs did not pretend that such was the case, but they said that they failed to make that presentment because the defendant himself requested, through his brother James, that the person who held the bill should not present it. The plaintiffs were nonsuited on the ground that authority from George Longmore to James to act in the way stated was not proved.

LIBEL TO RECOVER VALUE OF GOODS ALLEGED TO BE LOST IN COURSE OF SHIPMENT.

In the United States Circuit Court, October 4, 1853. Before Chief Justice NELSON. Interesting to traders on the Isthmus and common carriers. *James N. Olney vs. the steamship Falcon.* This came up on appeal from Judge BETTS sitting in the court below as Admiralty Judge. Chief Justice Nelson delivered the following opinion:—

This libel was filed to recover the value of goods (carbines) which were alleged to be lost in the course of shipment from this port to Chagres, in the ship *Falcon*, in April, 1849. The bill of lading which was signed by the purser of the ship acknowledged the receipt of the box, and engaged to convey and deliver the same at Chagres in good order, the damages of sea, &c., excepted, outside of the bar, to S. Lea or Zachrisson & Nelson, or their assigns. The shippers were Livingston, Wells & Co., and the goods were destined to the house of Cooke, Baker & Co., of San Francisco. On the arrival of the ship at Chagres, this box, with other goods, was put on board, in charge of the second mate of the ship, and sent on shore to be delivered to J. Rames, whose place of business was at the landing, and who was the agent of the house of Zachrisson & Nelson, of Panama, on the other side of the Isthmus.

The ship was anchored a little over a mile from the place of landing. After this, S. Lea came on board and called for the box. The purser, who had charge of the landing of the goods at that place, advised him that it had already been sent on shore. There was no warehouse at the place of landing, and the usual custom of this ship in 1849 was to land the goods at the storehouse of Rames, which was at that place in the old town of Chagres. Whether the box ever reached the hands of Rames does not appear, as we have no evidence respecting this from either the libellant or the claimant. There is proof that it did not reach the house of Cooke, Baker & Co., of San Francisco, the place of its destination.

The court below dismissed the libel on the ground, principally, that evidence of the non-delivery of the goods to S. Lea was not sufficient to charge the carrier—that evidence should also have been given of the non-delivery to the house of Zachrisson & Nelson, the other consignees. The case, as thus presented on the evidence, is undoubtedly a close one, and if it had been before me originally I might possibly, in weighing the evidence, have inclined to a different conclusion from that to which the learned judge arrived. But as the weak point in it has not been strengthened by the additional testimony in this court, and as the libellant has since the appeal had an opportunity to supply the defect, perhaps it is but right to conclude that the inference of the court below was the proper one.

It seems to be well settled that in order to charge the carrier, some evidence must be given on the part of the shippers, or owners, of the non-delivery of the goods according to the requirements of the bill of lading, (1 Carr & P. 110, 11 E.; Com. Law, R. 333 5 Ad. & Ell. 543 2 Greenlf. Ev. P. 213; Angel on Carriers, 470.) Very slight evidence will be sufficient to throw the burden of proof upon the carrier to show the goods have been delivered. But there must be some evidence in the first instance of the non-delivery by the shippers.

Now the weak point of the case on the part of the libellant is this: According to the bill of lading the box was to be delivered to S. Lea, or to Zachrisson & Nelson, at Chagres. Lea has been examined, and proves clearly enough that the goods were not delivered to him. But there is a total absence of any evidence of a non-delivery to the other consignee. There is evidence that the box did not reach the house of Cooke, Baker & Co. of San Francisco, but this affords no inference, legal or logical, that it did not come to the hands of Zachrisson & Nelson of Panama. And beside, the tendency of evidence on the part of the claimants is not that there was a delivery to Lea, but to Rames, who was the agent of Zachrisson & Nelson at Chagres to forward goods to them, and his place of business, and the place where the goods were landed, was on the opposite side of the river from that of Lea. The box had been sent there before Lea called

for it on board the ship; and, if any effect is to be given to the rule of law, that the owners must give at least some evidence of the non-delivery in order to charge the carrier, it seems to me the plain application of it in this case, sustains the view taken by the court below. As we have already said, proving that the box did not reach Cooke, Baker & Co. of San Francisco, in no respect helps the case. It may have been lost in the hands of Rames, or in the transit across the Isthmus before it reached Zachrisson & Nelson, or if it did, while in their hands at Panama. I admit, the point upon which the case turns is a nice one, and not without its difficulties, and which might have been cleared up and disembarrassed by further testimony on the other side; but, I am inclined to think, upon the strict principles of the law governing the case, the burden lay upon the libellant to furnish the evidence. He should have given some testimony legally tending to show that the goods had not been delivered to Zachrisson & Nelson, or to Rames, their agent at Chagres. I find no such evidence in the case, and must, therefore, affirm the decree below with costs.

DELIVERY OF WARRANT COMPULSORY—PRESENTATION INSUFFICIENT.

A sold to B 1,000 tons of iron, then in the hands of the ironmaster, and handed over to him the delivery warrant, indorsed by himself, by which the ironmaster was to deliver to A or his order, "upon presentation" of the warrant. B required the ironmaster to deliver upon the warrant being merely exhibited to him. The ironmaster demanded the delivery of the warrant before the delivery of the iron. A brought an action against B for the price of the iron. B in his plea traversed the allegation in the declaration, "that he might have obtained delivery of the iron." The question was, what was the meaning of the word "presentation?" Jervia, C. J., said:—

"I am of opinion that 'presentation' means that the party holding the iron had a right to demand that the warrant should be delivered over to his keeping. The word 'presentation' means either a showing or delivery over, as the circumstances of the case require; and I think that here the latter construction is required. I think it natural that there should have been a delivery of the warrant before the delivery of the iron." (*Bartlett vs. Holmes*, 21 L. T. Rep., 104.)

BANKRUPTCY.

In *ex parte Legge*, 21 L. T. Rep., 79, the Commissioner was held to be justified in recommitting a bankrupt, who on his last examination had given unsatisfactory answers, for which he had been committed; and subsequently, being again brought up for examination at his own request, and being asked if he adhered to his former statement, he gave a totally different account of the whole transaction; and being asked what were his intentions in dealing with the property, he made a statement which induced the Commissioner to recommit him.

ABSOLUTE LIABILITY OF A DECEASED'S ESTATE.

A general direction by a will to carry on the business does not limit the liability for the debts arising out of such business to the capital actually employed in it at the time of testator's death, but the liability is extended to the whole estate. (*M'Neill vs. Acton*, 21 L. T. Rep., 84.)

PATENT LAW.

The Lord Chancellor has extended to seven months the time allowed to patentees to file their specification, under the circumstances stated in the report. (*Re Simpson*, 21 L. T. Rep., 81.)

COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE AND REVIEW.

INFLUENCE OF POLITICAL DISTURBANCES UPON COMMERCIAL AFFAIRS—STATE OF THE MONEY MARKET—EFFECT OF FOREIGN EXCITEMENTS UPON OUR EXPORTS OF COTTON—EXPORTS FROM NEW ORLEANS TO FOREIGN PORTS—DUTIES ON IMPORTS AT PHILADELPHIA—CONDITION OF THE BANKS AT BALTIMORE AND NEW YORK—DEMAND FOR RAILROAD AND OTHER BONDS—COMPARATIVE PRODUCT OF DOMESTIC GOLD—DEPOSITS AT PHILADELPHIA, NEW ORLEANS, AND DAHLONEGA FOR 1853—IMPORTS AND EXPORTS AT NEW YORK FOR THE YEAR—INCREASE OF IMPORTS CHECKED, AND INCREASE OF EXPORTS CONTINUED—FULL MONTHLY COMPARATIVE TABLES OF THE FOREIGN COMMERCE OF NEW YORK—BUSINESS AT THE UNITED STATES BONDED WAREHOUSE—CASH REVENUE OF THE UNITED STATES AT NEW YORK—COMPREHENSIVE TABLE OF THE IMPORTS OF FOREIGN DRY GOODS AT NEW YORK, GIVEN IN MONTHLY ITEMS FOR A PERIOD OF FIVE YEARS—PRICES OF BREADSTUFFS IN EUROPE, AND COMPARATIVE REPORTS OF DOMESTIC PRODUCE—EFFECT OF DEAR FOOD UPON POPULAR INSUBORDINATION, ETC.

THE history of Commerce for the past month has been intimately connected with the uncertainties which have agitated the political world. There has been no general panic, and comparatively but little excitement; the prevailing tone of the financial market has been negative rather than positive—a general indisposition to engage in any matters of importance which could not be carried to an immediate conclusion. Thus, while there has been no scarcity of money, except at a few points where adverse domestic exchanges effected a temporary depletion, there has been no return to the ease and confidence which have been realized throughout most of the previous year. The banks have operated with caution, and while their real strength has on the whole been steadily increasing, they have shown but little disposition to extend their accommodations. In Boston, New York, Philadelphia, and Baltimore, loans have been readily negotiated outside of the banks at 9 a 12 per cent per annum, and borrowers seem to have conformed themselves to this order of things without any restiveness. Still, it cannot be denied that there is, and has been for the last month or two, an under current of anxiety, a vague fear of trouble at hand from the dark cloud which hangs over Eastern Europe.

Commerce has done more than all other influences combined to promote peace among men, and it ever shudders at the sight of the flashing steel. In order to see *how* a war between the principal nations of Europe will injure our financial interests, we have but to look at a single item of our national exports. The cotton crop of the United States cannot be used at home. When all of our spindles are at work, we cannot use 800,000 bales out of a crop of 3,000,000. In 1851, we exported 927,237,089 lbs. of cotton, valued at \$112,315,317; in 1852, 1,093,230,639 lbs., valued at \$87,965,732; and last year (more than ever before since this staple was first planted) we exported 1,111,570,370 lbs., valued at \$109,456,404. A general war throughout Europe must greatly diminish the power of our regular customers to consume this staple, and there are no looms in other quarters of the world which can make up the deficiency. Our total exports of domestic produce for the last year were \$189,869,162, and of this, as we have seen, over \$109,000,000 were in raw cotton. Stop this traffic, and who does not see that the great heart of trade is at once paralyzed. We do not, however, believe in a general war; we cannot think that two of the most civilized nations of Europe will resort to this barbarous pastime, and yet the knot of diplomatic intrigue seems too firmly tied to be parted except with the sword. The falling off in the shipments of cotton from New Orleans during the last quarter has not, however, had much to do with foreign troubles. The sickness there and at all of the markets near that port, until late in the season, was of itself sufficient to

prevent cotton from reaching the seaboard, and thus we find that the receipts there are far behind the corresponding date of the previous year. There has been a slight improvement in the Gulf shipments of some articles of produce, but on the whole the total exports from that district, for the last quarter of 1853, are much behind the corresponding total for 1852.

EXPORTS FROM NEW ORLEANS TO FOREIGN PORTS, FOR THREE MONTHS ENDING
DEC. 31st.

	1852.		1853.	
	Domestic produce.	Foreign goods.	Dom. prod'g.	For'n goods.
In American vessels.....	\$16,155,597	\$112,355	\$8,446,222	\$23,564
In foreign "	3,973,692	22,526	2,651,307	30,110
Total.....	\$20,129,289	\$134,881	\$11,097,529	\$53,674

Here it will be seen that the shipments of domestic produce from that single port have declined during the period stated upwards of nine millions of dollars.

The receipts for cash duties for the current month will not be as large throughout the country as for the same period of last year. In this respect 1853 is likely to carry the banner for some time. The following will show the comparative total at Philadelphia for each month of the last four years:—

	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
January	\$503,829 45	\$426,233 10	\$315,877 55	\$267,010 25
February.....	147,484 60	329,056 70	489,000 00	623,642 75
March.....	315,063 92	363,994 90	367,400 70	427,620 38
April.....	222,042 80	277,612 45	303,922 53	264,753 55
May.....	253,940 72	297,088 00	257,786 70	316,817 77
June.....	216,684 30	259,604 50	261,290 60	628,503 90
July.....	452,331 60	506,113 00	414,814 85	555,489 00
August.....	465,679 25	423,487 75	490,201 00	549,108 58
September.....	222,214 49	244,698 65	315,292 50	521,811 00
October.....	205,432 30	228,152 60	210,149 52	302,941 80
November.....	159,328 35	171,041 25	206,052 30	345,642 53
December.....	148,080 40	140,140 90	402,160 95	475,742 25
	\$3,361,112 18	\$3,673,123 80	\$4,033,909 20	\$5,278,083 65
Increase in 1853 over 1852.....				\$1,244,174 45
" 1853 over 1851.....				1,604,959 85
" 1853 over 1850.....				1,916,971 47
" 1853 over 1849.....				2,563,118 41

The banks have been cautiously expanding, but on a substantial specie basis. At Baltimore, on the 2d inst., the official statement of the twelve banks showed the annexed comparative result:—

Date.	Capital.	Discounts.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.
Jan. 2, 1854..	\$7,592,380	\$14,969,218 11	\$2,848,708 62	\$2,956,532	\$6,962,939 68
3, 1853..	7,291,415	14,291,221 15	2,991,910 44	3,328,058	6,021,709 04
5, 1852..	7,141,461	11,428,509 81	1,967,564 67	2,180,667	3,915,977 09
6, 1851..	7,101,056	11,783,786 59	2,810,174 31	2,281,918	4,526,966 36
7, 1850..	6,976,814	10,924,113 07	2,113,768 49	2,078,588	3,648,817 33
1, 1849..	6,974,646	9,797,417 21	1,781,911 11	1,852,168	2,827,896 81
1, 1848..	6,971,852	10,699,963 00	1,834,167 00	2,104,712	3,123,859 00
4, 1847..	6,969,329	10,082,285 00	1,814,308 00	1,986,248	3,261,999 00
5, 1846..	6,971,681	10,143,299 00	1,861,500 00	1,259,140	3,113,750 00

At New York, the expansion noticed in our last continued up to the 7th of January, when there was a slight check given to it, as will be seen from the official averages which we annex below. The New York banks have now reached about the same position they occupied last September:—

WEEKLY AVERAGES OF NEW YORK CITY BANKS.

Week ending.	Average amount of Loans and Discounts.	Average amount of Specie.	Average amount of Circulation.	Average amount of Deposits.
August 6.....	\$97,899,499	\$9,746,441	\$9,513,053	\$60,579,797
August 13.....	94,633,282	10,653,518	9,451,943	57,457,504
August 20.....	94,074,717	11,082,274	9,389,727	57,807,223
August 27.....	92,387,618	11,819,040	9,427,191	57,481,891
September 3.....	91,741,338	11,268,049	9,554,294	57,502,970
September 10.....	91,108,347	11,380,698	9,597,336	57,545,164
September 17.....	90,190,589	11,860,235	9,566,728	57,612,301
September 24.....	90,092,765	11,840,925	9,477,541	58,312,334
October 1.....	90,149,540	11,231,912	9,521,665	57,968,661
October 8.....	89,128,998	10,266,602	9,673,458	57,985,760
October 15.....	87,837,273	11,330,172	9,464,714	59,068,674
October 22.....	85,867,931	10,303,254	9,388,543	55,748,729
October 29.....	83,400,321	10,866,672	9,300,350	53,335,462
November 5.....	83,092,630	11,771,880	9,492,158	55,600,977
November 12.....	82,882,409	12,823,575	9,287,629	56,201,007
November 19.....	83,717,622	13,691,324	9,151,443	57,446,424
November 26.....	84,802,530	13,343,196	9,032,769	58,673,076
December 3.....	85,824,756	12,830,772	9,133,586	58,435,207
December 10.....	86,708,028	12,493,760	9,075,704	57,838,076
December 17.....	87,865,073	12,166,020	8,939,830	58,312,478
December 24.....	88,766,402	12,074,499	8,872,764	58,154,802
December 31.....	90,162,106	11,058,478	8,927,013	58,963,976
January 7, 1854.....	90,133,887	11,506,124	9,075,926	60,835,362
January 14.....	90,010,012	11,894,458	8,668,344	58,396,956
January 21.....	90,068,738	11,455,156	8,605,235	59,071,252

Since our last, the Panama Railroad Company have issued \$1,478,000 of 7 per cent convertible bonds, which were taken by highly respectable bidders at an average of \$92 96. They have since risen to par, showing that railroad bonds are not yet doomed to lie on the shelf. The demand from Europe and capitalists in this country for first-class bonds for investment has been steady, and is rather increasing. The product of our gold mines has been larger during the past than any previous year, but the total cannot be so well ascertained, owing to the fact that large quantities of California gold are now exported in ingots, just as they are received by the steamer, and without reaching our mints. The following will show the total gold deposits at the Philadelphia Mint for the last five years:—

COMPARATIVE STATEMENT OF GOLD DEPOSITS AT THE MINT OF THE UNITED STATES, PHILADELPHIA, SINCE THE CALIFORNIA DISCOVERIES.

	1849.	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
January.....	\$253,989	\$1,139,959	\$5,071,667	\$4,161,680	\$4,962,097
February.....	385,672	2,114,718	3,004,970	3,010,222	3,548,523
March.....	385,940	1,506,350	2,880,271	3,892,156	7,533,752
April.....	477,448	1,782,325	2,878,353	3,091,037	4,861,321
May.....	669,721	2,503,526	3,269,491	4,335,678	4,865,638
June.....	1,198,754	2,144,330	3,637,560	6,689,474	4,545,179
July.....	907,834	2,610,436	3,127,517	4,193,880	3,505,331
August.....	1,454,377	3,370,579	4,135,312	2,671,536	4,518,903
September....	1,033,309	3,450,038	4,046,799	4,253,687	3,027,806
October.....	1,187,921	3,524,760	4,743,586	4,140,069	4,472,606
November....	857,774	4,473,234	5,492,456	7,279,942	3,650,051
December.....	1,733,986	4,620,153	5,641,425	3,336,982	4,445,000
Total.....	10,491,675	33,240,458	47,929,407	51,056,243	53,426,205

The total silver deposits for the year were over \$8,000,000.

At New Orleans the total gold deposits for the year were, from California, \$2,006,673 14, and from other sources \$145,581, making a total of \$2,152,254 16.

The total deposit of silver was much larger than usual, amounting to \$4,536,131. The total deposit of gold at Dahlonega Mint was \$452,289 76. We annex our usual monthly statement of the deposits and coinage at Philadelphia for the month of December:—

DEPOSITS FOR DECEMBER.			
	Gold from California.	Other Sources.	Silver.
Philadelphia mint....	\$4,395,000	\$50,000	\$160,000
Total.			
\$4,605,000			

COINAGE AT THE PHILADELPHIA MINT FOR DECEMBER.					
GOLD.			SILVER.		
	Pieces.	Value.		Pieces.	Value.
Double eagles.....	31,159	\$623,180	Dollars.....	7,110	\$7,110
Eagles.....	35,063	350,630	Half dollars.....	448,700	224,350
Half eagles.....	18,656	93,280	Quarter dollars ..	268,000	67,000
Quarter eagles.....	145,124	362,810	Dimes.....	3,638,000	363,800
Gold dollars.....	241,672	241,672	Half dimes.....	5,040,000	252,000
Total gold coin...			Total silver....	9,401,810	\$914,260
Gold bars.....		2,619,561	COPPER.—Cents..	1,531,289	15,313
			Half cents ..	87,114	185

We are now enabled to give full comparative tables of the Commerce of the port of New York, for the year ending December 31st. Never before in the history of this country have the totals of imports and exports exhibited such a marked increase. The total imports at New York from foreign ports, for the year 1853, are \$64,248,033 greater than for 1852, \$62,736,074 greater than for 1851, and \$58,390,710 greater than for 1850.

FOREIGN IMPORTS AT NEW YORK.				
Year.	Dutiable.	Free Goods.	Specie.	Total.
1853.....	\$179,512,182	\$12,156,387	\$2,429,083	\$194,097,652
1852.....	115,386,052	12,105,342	2,408,225	129,849,619
1851.....	119,592,264	9,719,771	2,049,543	131,361,578
1850.....	110,983,768	8,645,240	16,127,989	135,706,947

The imports for the year 1850 contain upwards of ten millions of gold entered from California, via New Granada, which should not be included under the head of foreign, but cannot well be separated.

The exports from New York to foreign ports have also increased in about the same ratio, although this increase assumed no marked importance until toward the middle of the year. The total for the year 1853, exclusive of specie, is \$20,709,288 greater than for 1852, \$23,226,002 greater than for 1851, and \$17,000,342 greater than for 1850. In order to show the short period of time during which most of this increase occurred, we annex a comparative quarterly statement:—

EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS, EXCLUSIVE OF SPECIE.				
	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
First Quarter.....	\$9,272,432	\$10,890,819	\$11,344,412	\$11,892,650
Second ".....	12,069,318	13,419,107	13,742,203	16,268,097
Third ".....	16,189,399	10,136,156	9,655,796	16,810,526
Fourth ".....	13,605,151	8,964,558	11,684,943	22,165,369
Total.....	\$50,136,300	\$43,910,640	\$46,427,354	\$67,136,642

Thus while the imports at New York for 1853 show an increase of about 50 per cent over the total for the previous year, the exports of produce and merchandize at the same port show also a corresponding increase. There is, however, this difference—the heaviest increase in imports was during the earlier part of the year, and it has now ceased; while the great increase in the exports was during the last quarter, and is still continued.

MONTHLY STATEMENT OF FOREIGN IMPORTS ENTERED AT NEW YORK DURING THE YEARS 1852 AND 1853.

Months.	Entered for Consumption.		Entered Warehouse.		Free Goods.		Specie.		Total.
	1852.	1853.	1852.	1853.	1852.	1853.	1852.	1853.	
January.....	\$8,584,811	\$11,583,405	\$1,281,594	\$642,279	\$1,041,456	\$1,202,238	\$104,786	\$38,048	\$11,012,097
February....	7,054,953	14,578,018	1,008,388	1,012,564	1,110,949	1,767,908	110,293	123,430	9,249,577
March	9,802,024	15,099,249	916,519	5,015,011	1,848,938	2,051,846	525,421	247,722	12,687,902
April.....	8,410,448	11,746,904	732,422	2,236,428	1,496,449	1,342,467	327,400	172,917	10,966,719
May.....	6,096,996	10,255,071	453,109	2,590,000	798,046	1,487,248	390,584	207,924	7,719,735
June.....	7,626,181	13,590,517	640,732	3,010,404	1,062,947	744,909	429,747	115,021	9,759,597
July.....	11,453,117	16,725,643	423,919	2,080,908	1,615,154	1,072,502	150,067	193,454	12,942,287
August	18,711,421	16,788,352	464,962	2,226,299	1,075,388	667,408	56,917	611,715	15,808,688
September...	11,095,837	14,791,030	623,260	1,977,358	834,343	628,220	66,789	296,026	12,620,219
October.....	7,775,614	9,637,601	594,426	1,866,866	216,143	422,156	62,690	256,302	8,647,873
November....	7,187,851	9,232,007	596,068	2,864,360	981,882	334,228	80,766	1,4,342	8,786,067
December....	8,421,669	10,307,294	935,237	3,074,629	829,147	436,187	112,815	111,152	10,298,868
Total Imports	\$106,670,411	\$154,315,091	\$8,665,641	\$25,197,091	\$12,105,342	\$12,156,387	\$2,488,225	\$2,429,088	\$139,849,619
									\$194,097,652

EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS DURING THE YEARS 1852 AND 1853.

Months.	Domestic Produce.		Foreign Produce.		Foreign Dutiable.		Foreign Free.		Specie.		Total.
	1852.	1853.	1852.	1853.	1852.	1853.	1852.	1853.	1852.	1853.	
January.....	\$2,419,296	\$2,990,624	\$358,244	\$265,780	\$265,693	\$42,574	\$2,863,958	\$747,679	\$5,673,191	\$4,046,607	
February....	3,352,943	3,325,005	322,272	171,125	93,932	63,197	3,551,543	1,121,020	7,320,690	4,880,347	
March	4,313,245	4,705,007	857,280	299,656	100,557	29,732	611,994	592,479	5,888,026	5,826,874	
April.....	4,244,044	5,178,471	853,263	422,796	67,719	208,798	200,266	767,055	4,866,291	6,877,080	
May.....	4,249,924	4,165,954	545,973	487,630	106,818	243,598	1,834,893	2,162,467	6,727,808	7,059,649	
June.....	3,566,369	5,057,229	482,594	394,043	125,500	109,668	3,556,355	3,264,282	7,730,818	8,825,222	
July.....	2,965,542	4,882,957	326,732	447,201	20,759	313,192	2,971,499	8,924,612	6,288,532	9,567,962	
August	2,340,820	4,540,383	220,978	377,720	46,464	79,857	2,983,833	1,183,973	5,544,095	6,181,938	
September...	3,289,429	5,579,088	317,888	526,668	123,184	63,470	2,123,495	1,244,191	6,857,996	7,413,407	
October.....	3,497,874	5,459,401	484,801	719,534	82,886	63,687	2,452,301	4,757,972	6,517,862	11,000,594	
November....	3,529,447	7,489,937	541,296	739,872	27,684	48,088	809,813	3,855,775	4,908,190	12,183,672	
December....	2,947,848	7,166,332	616,352	439,154	54,805	38,864	1,180,305	3,131,851	4,701,310	10,776,701	
Total Exports	\$40,716,781	\$60,540,888	\$4,838,622	\$5,291,119	\$681,951	\$1,304,635	\$25,092,255	\$26,753,356	\$71,523,609	\$98,889,998	

One of the most striking items in the preceding tables is the large amount of imports entered for warehousing, the total for 1853 being \$25,197,091 against \$8,665,641 for the preceding year. The withdrawals from warehouse for consumption show but a trifling increase, while the exports from bond, it will be seen, are but little larger; the stock in hand does not show the difference, which must be found in the increased amount distributed to other ports. The following will exhibit the comparative entries and withdrawals for consumption during the year:—

WAREHOUSING BUSINESS AT NEW YORK.

	Entered Warehouse.		Withdrawn from Warehouse.	
	1852.	1853.	1851.	1853.
January.....	\$1,281,594	\$642,279	\$1,584,652	\$1,536,365
February.....	1,063,383	1,012,564	1,788,997	830,522
March.....	918,519	2,015,011	1,605,849	697,113
April.....	732,422	2,236,423	1,255,429	1,229,708
May.....	453,109	2,590,000	1,380,371	1,049,550
June.....	640,722	3,010,404	911,479	1,181,596
July.....	423,919	2,080,908	1,095,800	1,702,448
August.....	464,962	2,226,299	1,329,991	1,745,864
September.....	623,260	1,577,358	1,254,358	1,709,052
October.....	594,426	1,866,866	1,256,570	1,188,983
November.....	596,068	2,864,350	1,047,972	1,333,068
December.....	935,257	3,074,629	903,841	1,488,986
Total.....	\$8,665,641	\$25,197,091	\$15,415,309	\$15,693,055

The exports of specie for the year 1853 are \$26,753,356, against \$25,096,255 for the year 1852, \$43,743,209 for the year 1851, and \$9,982,948 for the year 1850. The cash duties received at New York have not increased in quite the same relative proportion as the dutiable imports. The following is a comparison for the last four years:—

CASH DUTIES RECEIVED AT NEW YORK.

	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
January.....	\$2,948,925 25	\$3,511,610 04	\$2,600,562 64	\$3,311,137 37
February.....	2,018,780 68	2,658,835 87	2,286,955 47	3,878,395 47
March.....	2,028,960 55	3,124,811 39	2,730,369 61	3,935,967 63
April.....	2,216,669 13	2,547,582 52	2,447,634 07	3,348,252 14
May.....	2,311,900 68	2,544,940 16	1,952,110 86	2,852,853 56
June.....	1,504,683 76	2,305,185 62	2,232,680 23	3,840,723 33
July.....	4,210,115 95	3,558,400 12	3,240,787 18	4,640,107 15
August.....	3,484,965 65	3,234,764 21	3,884,295 56	4,746,657 81
September.....	2,495,242 77	2,609,832 97	3,156,107 29	4,226,340 18
October.....	2,112,906 29	1,958,516 17	2,392,109 57	2,705,694 33
November.....	1,642,125 27	1,488,740 09	2,051,476 35	2,642,985 92
December.....	1,072,173 76	1,578,343 92	2,357,648 98	2,959,110 94
Total.....	\$28,047,439 74	\$31,081,263 08	\$31,332,737 81	\$43,088,225 32

The increased imports at the port specified have been nearly equally divided between dry goods and general merchandise. The following will show the comparative receipts of dry goods for a series of years, and will be found the most complete table of the kind ever published in this country:—

VALUE OF FOREIGN DRY GOODS ENTERED FOR CONSUMPTION AT THE PORT OF NEW YORK.
MANUFACTURES OF WOOLEN.

	1849.	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
January.....	\$180,591	\$1,585,186	\$1,600,093	\$1,306,322	\$1,614,373
February.....	898,311	1,266,968	1,273,619	990,291	2,367,171
March.....	582,065	802,202	1,134,479	1,182,921	2,065,217
April.....	587,540	1,321,310	918,580	762,030	1,421,906
May.....	237,652	768,810	586,350	397,305	1,026,451
June.....	474,237	596,170	1,068,752	688,785	2,320,855
July.....	1,020,673	3,552,120	2,354,643	2,187,187	4,097,250
August.....	2,963,604	2,254,069	1,786,232	2,528,842	3,605,759
September.....	1,330,783	1,380,248	1,293,205	2,085,397	3,260,641
October.....	600,413	576,580	416,738	1,077,603	1,270,014
November.....	418,534	379,399	285,308	633,451	1,012,385
December.....	465,659	225,717	690,489	1,023,500	1,181,083
Entered for consumption	10,055,062	14,708,779	13,358,493	14,313,639	25,183,054
From warehouse.....	1,928,217	1,856,237	1,893,535	1,637,376	2,174,496
Tot'l pass'd to consump'n	11,983,279	16,565,016	15,252,028	16,451,015	27,357,550

MANUFACTURES OF COTTON.

	1849.	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
January.....	\$1,108,448	\$1,774,838	\$1,843,441	\$1,308,452	\$1,743,168
February.....	1,609,522	1,106,145	1,452,832	938,177	1,977,027
March.....	1,048,282	946,597	1,123,009	1,002,385	1,696,977
April.....	557,472	1,148,239	698,757	768,902	921,310
May.....	275,090	556,829	237,394	277,351	380,308
June.....	376,450	389,551	423,923	330,785	903,011
July.....	817,520	1,607,775	1,193,817	1,089,736	1,847,216
August.....	1,142,686	943,925	870,116	1,240,071	1,548,745
September.....	548,516	546,528	600,073	950,820	1,199,298
October.....	269,654	314,028	229,166	387,454	505,323
November.....	245,312	267,516	264,439	370,077	654,878
December.....	368,264	306,972	676,453	1,357,605	1,163,892
Entered for consumption	8,367,215	9,908,938	9,618,425	10,022,415	14,541,153
From warehouse.....	1,152,756	1,229,457	1,409,519	1,416,341	1,128,749
Tot'l pass'd to consump'n	9,519,972	11,138,395	11,027,935	11,438,756	15,669,895

MANUFACTURES OF SILK.

	1849.	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
January.....	\$2,196,750	\$2,061,815	\$4,032,002	\$2,970,633	\$3,383,165
February.....	1,572,382	1,861,499	2,423,859	1,980,154	2,871,017
March.....	963,619	1,191,433	1,640,577	1,688,099	3,536,156
April.....	883,876	879,996	1,281,669	999,303	2,104,615
May.....	267,592	1,030,895	918,399	518,368	1,500,358
June.....	454,577	855,351	1,512,986	1,011,909	2,459,230
July.....	1,784,797	4,572,161	3,983,092	3,074,265	4,824,913
August.....	2,859,992	2,803,145	2,532,029	2,706,702	2,981,048
September.....	1,130,523	1,874,495	1,553,943	2,070,823	3,864,625
October.....	529,063	762,231	687,355	1,317,305	1,397,424
November.....	501,270	673,433	347,862	969,417	1,178,326
December.....	764,762	592,307	938,506	1,519,689	1,700,943
Entered for consumption	13,909,203	19,123,766	21,802,279	20,826,647	31,801,820
From warehouse.....	1,386,550	1,152,268	1,684,177	1,918,056	1,515,296
Tot'l pass'd to consump'n	15,295,753	20,281,034	23,486,456	22,744,703	33,315,116

MANUFACTURES OF FLAX.

	1849.	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
January.....	\$402,275	\$1,055,755	\$692,188	\$569,161	\$870,460
February	467,441	688,157	887,394	504,550	909,457
March	537,847	754,261	873,251	701,572	1,062,245
April	845,225	1,348,491	569,399	604,499	609,780
May	176,877	867,677	268,986	268,607	357,649
June	158,000	215,898	244,949	292,015	399,969
July	281,650	741,095	611,250	488,586	719,307
August.....	706,075	619,777	536,816	614,686	712,342
September	443,266	483,040	477,742	742,596	767,925
October	227,291	451,455	273,065	413,464	436,059
November	291,829	823,704	321,715	459,882	512,680
December	224,134	216,914	365,801	650,087	716,307
Entered for consumption	4,211,910	7,262,724	6,122,006	6,304,705	8,064,180
From warehouse	544,651	468,963	627,812	799,132	382,028
Tot'l pass'd to consump'n	4,756,561	7,731,687	6,749,818	7,103,837	8,446,208

MISCELLANEOUS DRY GOODS.

	1849.	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
January.....	\$881,881	\$270,898	\$540,204	\$451,243	\$478,461
February	404,169	270,504	419,240	349,486	597,320
March	385,833	174,563	399,988	519,964	699,879
April.....	299,776	165,117	259,456	291,033	522,563
May	198,931	52,528	124,013	246,796	241,651
June	151,737	72,100	176,670	103,388	246,876
July	262,297	380,898	453,476	530,595	569,761
August.....	361,336	383,468	382,831	536,684	516,007
September	209,243	342,998	331,601	446,681	585,535
October	95,184	202,295	195,475	168,379	292,485
November	101,332	240,445	138,685	203,849	217,279
December.....	139,072	123,195	201,299	412,660	371,679
Entered for consumption	2,990,791	2,678,809	3,622,938	4,260,708	5,339,496
From warehouse	368,419	203,628	487,225	393,277	402,517
Tot'l pass'd to consump'n	3,359,210	2,882,437	4,110,163	4,653,985	5,742,013

TOTAL ENTERED FOR CONSUMPTION.

	1849.	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
January.....	\$4,569,945	\$6,748,492	\$8,707,883	\$6,805,811	\$8,089,626
February.....	4,946,825	5,190,273	6,456,994	4,762,658	8,721,992
March.....	3,517,646	3,869,056	5,171,304	5,044,941	9,050,474
April	2,673,889	4,868,153	3,727,861	3,425,767	5,580,174
May	1,166,142	2,776,739	2,185,097	1,703,427	3,506,417
June	1,615,001	2,108,570	3,432,280	2,426,832	6,339,941
July	4,116,937	10,853,849	8,546,278	7,370,369	12,058,447
August.....	8,083,693	7,004,884	6,058,024	7,626,985	9,363,901
September.....	3,662,331	4,627,304	4,256,564	6,296,317	9,618,024
October	1,721,605	2,306,589	1,801,799	3,364,210	3,901,305
November	1,558,277	1,884,502	1,358,009	2,837,276	3,575,498
December	1,961,891	1,455,105	2,872,048	4,968,521	5,133,903
Enter'd for consumption	39,534,182	53,688,016	54,524,141	56,228,114	84,929,703
From warehouse.....	5,380,598	4,910,553	6,102,259	6,164,182	5,601,079
Tot'l pass'd to consump'n	44,914,775	58,598,569	60,626,400	62,392,296	90,530,782

VALUE OF FOREIGN DRY GOODS WITHDRAWN FROM WAREHOUSE AT NEW YORK.

MANUFACTURES OF WOOLEN.

	1849.	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
January	\$210,451	\$94,513	\$105,827	\$214,102	\$117,711
February.....	152,127	114,056	90,176	201,985	107,761
March.....	97,918	57,061	84,552	143,427	98,278
April	67,881	53,112	117,031	149,562	96,484
May.....	88,686	28,095	76,800	70,584	88,567
June	38,775	62,594	103,444	62,094	134,613
July.....	105,694	314,619	218,717	237,434	531,250
August.....	666,676	453,417	297,124	221,498	345,553
September.....	330,504	361,100	494,484	166,667	287,924
October	145,862	151,313	78,782	49,936	114,578
November.....	43,177	54,997	52,948	43,836	116,951
December	35,966	111,360	73,650	76,301	144,836
Total woollens.....	1,928,217	1,856,237	1,893,535	1,637,376	2,174,496

MANUFACTURES OF COTTON.

	1849.	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
January.....	\$261,325	\$190,243	\$254,224	\$280,601	\$165,387
February.....	228,999	199,016	202,950	311,647	145,055
March	126,471	74,746	171,336	229,213	116,078
April	112,257	103,583	140,401	144,867	100,071
May	44,603	40,507	52,646	37,902	29,007
June	16,417	40,555	29,446	24,586	48,637
July.....	88,078	104,830	157,371	96,970	98,255
August.....	129,701	201,480	121,312	95,769	86,119
September.....	84,995	117,801	107,154	69,448	94,480
October	18,440	48,803	48,188	28,798	49,881
November.....	14,220	49,875	34,911	18,960	54,887
December	27,250	58,168	89,071	82,580	141,885
Total cotton.....	1,152,756	1,229,457	1,409,510	1,416,341	1,128,742

MANUFACTURES OF SILK.

	1849.	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
January.....	\$262,263	\$149,029	\$106,370	\$291,386	\$336,582
February.....	220,744	129,579	140,724	384,198	96,755
March	150,656	56,075	119,483	193,600	58,471
April	71,499	132,750	104,735	155,249	100,671
May.....	40,979	46,720	49,343	138,717	79,177
June	33,818	50,284	72,562	88,132	103,650
July	79,656	124,574	265,709	149,894	238,066
August	201,431	146,737	121,689	140,143	101,271
September.....	113,577	126,316	245,100	97,148	53,968
October	53,123	65,932	144,646	141,266	53,824
November.....	59,233	57,088	134,560	64,497	123,471
December	99,521	67,134	129,256	73,326	172,390
Total silk.....	1,386,550	1,152,268	1,684,177	1,918,066	1,513,296

MANUFACTURES OF FLAX.

	1849.	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
January.....	\$88,817	\$40,889	\$109,935	\$121,635	\$29,965
February.....	64,684	54,298	69,065	188,788	37,386
March	42,790	35,214	56,204	140,042	24,261
April.....	39,867	34,116	68,188	75,329	16,228
May.....	20,066	37,506	28,930	40,355	9,390
June	21,750	31,440	27,245	17,310	13,454
July.....	59,139	24,695	37,782	32,064	18,957
August.....	90,473	46,838	65,350	42,129	14,672
September.....	30,236	65,715	44,778	56,955	48,844
October	33,571	23,907	53,667	30,519	22,597
November.....	24,151	32,396	25,160	20,179	58,892
December	29,117	41,949	41,508	33,827	92,332
Total flax	544,651	468,963	627,812	799,132	382,023

MISCELLANEOUS DRY GOODS.

	1849.	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
January.....	\$51,252	\$26,081	\$53,950	\$22,820	\$75,096
February.....	46,868	19,047	42,685	63,071	29,016
March.....	55,321	9,518	46,165	50,674	39,025
April.....	63,457	14,536	50,252	56,554	49,024
May.....	21,849	6,083	128,615	26,705	9,597
June.....	8,076	1,924	19,045	7,525	12,898
July.....	24,481	10,984	21,109	13,416	32,766
August.....	21,332	8,912	19,767	21,686	10,699
September.....	23,790	23,816	31,059	35,601	23,491
October.....	11,626	6,268	68,538	32,556	17,964
November.....	22,275	18,176	56,083	24,391	57,842
December.....	18,142	58,338	50,957	39,778	44,978
Total miscellaneous...	368,419	208,628	487,225	393,277	492,517

TOTAL WITHDRAWN.

January.....	\$874,108	\$500,705	\$630,306	\$930,544	\$724,741
February.....	713,422	515,996	545,600	1,149,639	415,963
March.....	473,156	232,614	477,240	756,956	330,113
April.....	354,961	338,097	480,557	581,561	362,478
May.....	166,173	158,911	236,384	314,263	210,738
June.....	113,836	186,797	251,742	199,647	313,343
July.....	356,998	579,752	800,688	528,278	914,324
August.....	1,109,613	857,384	625,242	521,225	558,314
September.....	583,102	694,748	922,575	425,819	503,707
October.....	262,122	296,218	398,321	283,075	258,844
November.....	163,106	212,332	353,662	166,863	412,043
December.....	209,996	386,999	384,442	306,812	596,471
Total withdrawn.....	5,880,593	4,910,563	6,102,259	6,164,182	5,601,079

VALUE OF FOREIGN DRY GOODS ENTERED FOR WAREHOUSING AT NEW YORK.

MANUFACTURES OF WOOL.

January.....	\$62,767	\$79,830	\$139,656	\$184,111	\$72,951
February.....	109,142	24,908	72,846	103,492	89,981
March.....	80,572	44,481	126,591	164,179	211,410
April.....	113,996	194,628	142,721	121,917	213,943
May.....	108,260	243,543	107,244	109,736	178,913
June.....	152,176	239,268	234,916	105,125	613,264
July.....	193,552	486,339	341,315	126,623	272,785
August.....	196,554	358,198	495,957	86,890	270,368
September.....	147,561	232,783	277,963	96,804	277,410
October.....	44,829	96,366	128,408	86,195	208,609
November.....	37,097	79,641	87,820	53,778	341,764
December.....	50,702	39,719	214,273	118,752	278,690
Total for warehousing.	1,297,008	2,119,699	2,369,710	1,862,602	3,031,092
Add entered for compt'n	10,055,062	14,708,779	13,358,493	14,813,839	25,183,054
Total entered at the port	11,352,070	16,828,478	15,728,203	16,176,241	28,214,146

MANUFACTURES OF COTTON.

	1849.	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
January.....	\$165,448	\$235,557	\$222,412	\$208,856	\$108,491
February.....	141,754	46,828	173,326	52,631	126,606
March.....	79,981	96,299	170,125	154,088	191,024
April.....	84,201	186,796	105,878	80,984	120,166
May.....	85,394	199,548	92,118	39,519	68,967
June.....	219,532	137,356	144,811	82,565	131,817
July.....	181,028	393,933	129,572	72,226	119,021
August.....	85,951	181,452	143,970	45,018	132,527
September.....	25,851	116,729	159,998	59,597	166,575
October.....	22,397	94,745	90,180	57,180	244,155
November.....	56,877	101,690	81,037	58,056	376,111
December.....	112,223	103,186	349,086	240,265	481,860
Total for warehousing..	1,260,637	1,954,114	1,862,458	1,100,930	2,262,320
Add ente'd for consum'n.	9,519,972	11,188,395	9,618,425	10,022,415	14,541,153
Total entered at the port	10,780,609	13,092,509	11,480,883	11,123,345	16,803,473

MANUFACTURES OF SILK.

	\$350,194	\$116,006	\$206,005	\$837,357	\$233,759
January.....					
February.....	158,075	61,112	196,362	150,177	86,220
March.....	131,047	112,051	211,348	132,333	254,792
April.....	117,934	157,772	135,904	203,334	144,313
May.....	78,601	49,368	111,418	111,309	107,694
June.....	41,257	76,091	109,085	86,984	143,979
July.....	164,856	222,142	268,318	130,624	144,791
August.....	83,277	181,543	371,652	72,579	99,273
September.....	44,692	232,520	184,289	88,150	120,867
October.....	19,000	63,977	494,462	19,718	278,991
November.....	121,830	57,224	172,607	76,603	316,871
December.....	241,776	54,053	145,876	218,074	396,218
Total for warehousing..	1,552,589	1,383,859	2,607,327	2,127,242	2,327,758
Add en'd for consum'p'n.	13,909,203	19,128,766	21,802,279	20,826,647	31,801,320
Total enter'd at the port	15,461,742	20,512,625	24,409,605	22,953,889	34,129,578

MANUFACTURES OF FLAX.

	\$4,891	\$56,145	\$54,355	\$66,839	\$11,516
January.....					
February.....	18,396	80,419	32,402	8,662	5,528
March.....	39,263	71,685	116,799	37,520	38,190
April.....	47,720	107,286	59,923	48,171	56,320
May.....	58,708	56,004	59,082	26,580	48,740
June.....	46,968	80,590	23,100	19,708	20,963
July.....	56,541	71,207	45,003	16,299	9,488
August.....	33,244	70,028	92,295	19,873	47,881
September.....	82,901	56,833	137,148	56,782	60,053
October.....	72,872	63,647	98,658	27,984	155,144
November.....	25,573	49,068	101,206	9,373	146,025
December.....	29,165	30,185	143,176	45,481	126,107
Total for warehousing..	515,742	743,097	963,147	383,222	725,955
Add ent'd for cons'mp'n	4,211,910	7,262,724	6,122,006	6,304,705	8,064,180
Total ent'ed at the port	4,727,652	8,005,821	7,085,153	6,687,927	8,790,135

MISCELLANEOUS DRY GOODS.

	1849.	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
January.....	\$20,328	\$8,012	\$42,253	\$24,402	\$53,475
February.....	11,883	12,559	70,171	45,685	24,375
March.....	66,104	1,594	43,392	52,762	39,421
April.....	36,577	23,438	24,487	45,301	60,929
May.....	10,709	4,926	9,777	19,817	26,459
June.....	38,258	4,521	12,345	13,022	37,132
July.....	20,545	12,313	27,465	21,556	21,121
August.....	7,537	7,526	38,698	28,536	12,436
September.....	37,707	25,521	90,092	61,718	39,185
October.....	3,154	20,912	73,081	53,776	22,624
November.....	6,311	45,597	66,542	41,123	27,448
December.....	16,350	50,671	21,651	44,336	62,778
Total for warehousing..	275,463	217,590	519,949	452,034	427,383
Add ent'd for cons'mpt'n	2,990,791	2,678,809	3,622,938	4,260,708	5,339,496
Total ent'd at the port	3,266,254	2,896,399	4,142,887	4,712,742	5,766,879

TOTAL.

	1849.	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
January.....	\$603,128	\$555,550	\$664,681	\$1,321,565	\$475,192
February.....	439,250	175,816	545,107	360,647	332,710
March.....	396,967	326,110	668,255	540,877	734,337
April.....	400,425	669,920	468,908	499,707	595,679
May.....	341,672	553,389	379,639	306,961	430,778
June.....	498,191	537,826	524,257	257,404	947,155
July.....	616,522	1,185,934	811,673	367,328	568,206
August.....	408,563	798,747	1,142,567	252,896	562,485
September.....	338,712	664,886	849,490	863,001	664,080
October.....	162,052	339,647	884,739	244,803	909,523
November.....	247,688	333,220	509,212	243,933	1,208,219
December.....	460,216	277,814	874,062	666,908	1,345,653
Total for warehousing..	4,901,389	6,418,359	8,322,590	5,426,030	8,774,508
Add ens'd for cons'mpt'n	39,534,182	53,688,016	54,524,141	56,228,114	84,929,708
Total ent'd at the port	44,435,571	60,106,375	62,846,731	61,654,144	93,704,211

The imports of dry goods since the opening of the year 1854 have fallen off, and the total for the year will probably fall considerably behind the very large amount for the last year. The high prices for our domestic produce in Europe are encouraging to shippers, and if the stock at our Northern seaports were not limited, the exports would be most astonishingly increased. As it is, the shipments for the last week from the port of New York have been nearly double the amount for the corresponding period of last year. The very large shipments recently arrived, and now arriving at European ports, are in the main paying very handsome profits, and many of the early shippers have acquired a fortune equal to the ordinary income of their business for a number of years. In this connection, it may be interesting to compare the exports of domestic produce from New York for the entire year, and we annex a table for this purpose. It will be seen, from the comparison with the previous year, that the shipments of wheat flour have increased 725,015 barrels; of wheat, 4,130,093 bushels; and of corn, 344,959 bushels. The shipments of oil, and of all kinds of provisions, have also largely increased.

EXPORTS OF CERTAIN ARTICLES OF DOMESTIC PRODUCE FROM NEW YORK TO FOREIGN
PORTS FOR THE YEARS NAMED:—

	1851.	1852.	1853.
ASHES —Pots.....lba.	24,628	16,790	11,077
Pearls	1,637	1,088	796
BEEWAX	280,820	412,732	224,268
BREADSTUFFS —Wheat flour.....bbls.	1,264,322	1,365,597	2,090,612
Rye flour.....	8,244	8,363	5,302
Corn meal.....	38,388	45,897	46,516
Wheat.....bush.	1,468,465	3,124,226	7,244,319
Rye	13,162	236,440	28,981
Oats	5,262	10,886	63,732
Barley	367	100
Corn.....	1,605,674	758,438	1,102,897
CANDLES —Mold.....boxes	37,932	59,802	47,568
Sperm.....	4,173	3,937	5,335
COALtons	11,298	37,161	33,875
COTTONbales	289,645	336,679	375,733
HAY	6,775	7,520	4,775
HOPS	418	746	328
NAVAL STORESbbls.	367,240	530,651	476,521
OILS —Whale.....galls.	1,122,318	62,822	259,173
Sperm.....	543,555	795,651	956,256
Lard.....	210,492	28,011	52,709
Linseed.....	7,979	12,427	20,355
PROVISIONS —Pork.....bbls.	47,482	39,625	71,641
Beef.....	40,147	48,875	52,243
Cut meats.....lba.	3,427,111	1,528,894	8,534,569
Butter.....	2,196,538	692,249	1,967,375
Cheese.....	7,487,139	1,249,021	7,184,890
Lard.....	5,686,857	4,545,641	6,915,393
RICEtrees.	29,100	26,113	25,342
TALLOWlba.	2,221,258	451,386	3,494,556
TOBACCO —Crude.....pkgs.	19,195	25,638	24,150
Manufactured.....lba.	3,798,354	4,676,409	5,617,362
WHALEBONE	1,302,526	1,033,980	3,167,037

What effect the high prices of breadstuffs and provisions are to have upon the population of Europe, it is now difficult to determine. In this country it will create but little inconvenience, although seriously felt already among the poor in our larger cities. But on the other side of the Atlantic, where the whole income of large classes of the people is barely sufficient to supply necessities for their daily consumption at average prices, the question assumes a graver aspect. If, as historians say, important battles have been lost through a fit of indigestion on the part of the commander, it is not the less true that many crowns have been lost and governments subverted, for want of something to digest in the stomach of the masses. While the common people of France and other continental States have cheap food, they will bear even a tyrannical government; while with dear food the mildest rule seems oppressive. It is too much the habit of the common mind to trace all misfortunes, even those which follow its own misdirected efforts, to the acts of others; and all classes of the people, in all countries and ages, have leaned, and do lean too much upon government. The habits of the people have more to do with their prosperity or adversity than any action of their rulers, and these habits are less dependent upon the government than the latter is upon them.

JOURNAL OF BANKING, CURRENCY, AND FINANCE.

ARGUMENTS FOR USURY LAWS STATED AND ANSWERED.

The following arguments for stringent usury laws are fairly stated, in a circular recently issued by parties who are asking a modification of the usury laws of New York. As the law now stands, the offender forfeits the entire sum lent, is also subject to fine and imprisonment, and may be placed upon a witness stand to swear himself into prison. This, it must be admitted, is very discreditable to the intelligence of the great commercial and manufacturing State of New York.

ARGUMENTS FOR STRINGENCY.

1. Money is the creation of sovereignty, is brought into existence by government, and is made a legal tender in the payment of debts. Therefore, it is the right and duty of government to regulate the price for its use.

Answer.—Government regulates all weights and measures, but not the prices of the articles weighed and measured.

No government in the world creates money, any more than they create the articles made by manufacturing companies that are incorporated by government. Nor can any but the Federal government make money a lawful tender in the payment of debts. Any party owing gold or silver in any form, can, at their own option, take it to the mint to be coined according to law, and then it is the duty of the United States government to regulate the weights and fineness of the metal, also its subdivision into small pieces, and the stamp indicating their value. Such a person then carries away his own gold or silver coin, with an ownership perfect and absolute, subject only to the general control incidental to all property.

2. The State government authorize the issue of paper money by certain incorporations of theirs, called "banks."

Answer.—Banks stand, or ought to stand, in the same relation to our State governments, that other incorporations authorized by our Legislature do.

Our Legislature charters insurance companies, but they never regulate premiums. They do not force our insurance companies to insure poor ships at the same rate as for good ones; and therefore they commit an error when they hinder a needy, yet useful and enterprising man, from borrowing, merely because he cannot find a party willing to lend for the maximum rate of interest fixed by law.

3. Money is a license provided by government, to enable or qualify men to transact business.

Answer.—Just as much as a set of weights and a yard stick are a license for a retailer to sell sugar and calico.

4. High rates of interest have been denounced from the earliest ages.

Answer.—So have high prices as compared with low, for all the comforts of life. Severe laws have been passed against usury, and so they have against religious freedom. In both cases such laws have been a great deal worse than idle.

5. All civilized governments have, from time to time, provided restrictive usury laws, for what they deemed good reasons.

Answer.—Nearly all civilized governments have since repealed such laws for still better reasons.

6. The relaxation as to usury on business contracts will advance the rate of interest, and disturb mortgages.

Answer.—Relaxation has never, in one single instance, failed to lower the rate of interest. Twenty-one of our States are now under the liberal system as to usury laws, and have found the result highly satisfactory to borrowers and to business men generally.

7. The modification sought for will benefit the city more than it will the country, or will benefit the city to the injury of the country.

Answer.—All history shows that, in all free countries, any measures that conduce to the benefit of great trading points, immediately send forth proportionably good influences to all surrounding interests. In a word, the pecuniary interest of city and country, in the same State, are perfectly reciprocal or identical. What benefits one, always benefits the other.

INTEREST TABLE OF SIX PER CENT PER ANNUM OF 365 DAYS.

January.			February.			March.			April.			May.			June.			July.			August.			September.			October.			November.			December.		
Day of	M	Y	Log.	Day of	M	Y	Log.	Day of	M	Y	Log.	Day of	M	Y	Log.	Day of	M	Y	Log.	Day of	M	Y	Log.	Day of	M	Y	Log.	Day of	M	Y	Log.	Day of	M	Y	Log.
1	1	16	1.82528	1	1	16	1.82528	1	1	16	1.82528	1	1	16	1.82528	1	1	16	1.82528	1	1	16	1.82528	1	1	16	1.82528	1	1	16	1.82528	1	1	16	1.82528
2	3	48	2.33542	2	3	48	2.33542	2	3	48	2.33542	2	3	48	2.33542	2	3	48	2.33542	2	3	48	2.33542	2	3	48	2.33542	2	3	48	2.33542	2	3	48	2.33542
3	8	39	2.83456	3	8	39	2.83456	3	8	39	2.83456	3	8	39	2.83456	3	8	39	2.83456	3	8	39	2.83456	3	8	39	2.83456	3	8	39	2.83456	3	8	39	2.83456
4	4	66	4.35575	4	4	66	4.35575	4	4	66	4.35575	4	4	66	4.35575	4	4	66	4.35575	4	4	66	4.35575	4	4	66	4.35575	4	4	66	4.35575	4	4	66	4.35575
5	6	99	5.86592	5	6	99	5.86592	5	6	99	5.86592	5	6	99	5.86592	5	6	99	5.86592	5	6	99	5.86592	5	6	99	5.86592	5	6	99	5.86592	5	6	99	5.86592
6	6	99	6.37608	6	6	99	6.37608	6	6	99	6.37608	6	6	99	6.37608	6	6	99	6.37608	6	6	99	6.37608	6	6	99	6.37608	6	6	99	6.37608	6	6	99	6.37608
7	7	116	7.38625	7	7	116	7.38625	7	7	116	7.38625	7	7	116	7.38625	7	7	116	7.38625	7	7	116	7.38625	7	7	116	7.38625	7	7	116	7.38625	7	7	116	7.38625
8	8	132	8.39641	8	8	132	8.39641	8	8	132	8.39641	8	8	132	8.39641	8	8	132	8.39641	8	8	132	8.39641	8	8	132	8.39641	8	8	132	8.39641	8	8	132	8.39641
9	9	148	9.40658	9	9	148	9.40658	9	9	148	9.40658	9	9	148	9.40658	9	9	148	9.40658	9	9	148	9.40658	9	9	148	9.40658	9	9	148	9.40658	9	9	148	9.40658
10	10	164	10.41674	10	10	164	10.41674	10	10	164	10.41674	10	10	164	10.41674	10	10	164	10.41674	10	10	164	10.41674	10	10	164	10.41674	10	10	164	10.41674	10	10	164	10.41674
11	11	181	11.42690	11	11	181	11.42690	11	11	181	11.42690	11	11	181	11.42690	11	11	181	11.42690	11	11	181	11.42690	11	11	181	11.42690	11	11	181	11.42690	11	11	181	11.42690
12	12	197	12.43707	12	12	197	12.43707	12	12	197	12.43707	12	12	197	12.43707	12	12	197	12.43707	12	12	197	12.43707	12	12	197	12.43707	12	12	197	12.43707	12	12	197	12.43707
13	13	214	13.44723	13	13	214	13.44723	13	13	214	13.44723	13	13	214	13.44723	13	13	214	13.44723	13	13	214	13.44723	13	13	214	13.44723	13	13	214	13.44723	13	13	214	13.44723
14	14	230	14.45740	14	14	230	14.45740	14	14	230	14.45740	14	14	230	14.45740	14	14	230	14.45740	14	14	230	14.45740	14	14	230	14.45740	14	14	230	14.45740	14	14	230	14.45740
15	15	247	15.46756	15	15	247	15.46756	15	15	247	15.46756	15	15	247	15.46756	15	15	247	15.46756	15	15	247	15.46756	15	15	247	15.46756	15	15	247	15.46756	15	15	247	15.46756
16	16	263	16.47773	16	16	263	16.47773	16	16	263	16.47773	16	16	263	16.47773	16	16	263	16.47773	16	16	263	16.47773	16	16	263	16.47773	16	16	263	16.47773	16	16	263	16.47773
17	17	280	17.48789	17	17	280	17.48789	17	17	280	17.48789	17	17	280	17.48789	17	17	280	17.48789	17	17	280	17.48789	17	17	280	17.48789	17	17	280	17.48789	17	17	280	17.48789
18	18	296	18.49806	18	18	296	18.49806	18	18	296	18.49806	18	18	296	18.49806	18	18	296	18.49806	18	18	296	18.49806	18	18	296	18.49806	18	18	296	18.49806	18	18	296	18.49806
19	19	312	19.50822	19	19	312	19.50822	19	19	312	19.50822	19	19	312	19.50822	19	19	312	19.50822	19	19	312	19.50822	19	19	312	19.50822	19	19	312	19.50822	19	19	312	19.50822
20	20	329	20.51838	20	20	329	20.51838	20	20	329	20.51838	20	20	329	20.51838	20	20	329	20.51838	20	20	329	20.51838	20	20	329	20.51838	20	20	329	20.51838	20	20	329	20.51838
21	21	345	21.52854	21	21	345	21.52854	21	21	345	21.52854	21	21	345	21.52854	21	21	345	21.52854	21	21	345	21.52854	21	21	345	21.52854	21	21	345	21.52854	21	21	345	21.52854
22	22	362	22.53871	22	22	362	22.53871	22	22	362	22.53871	22	22	362	22.53871	22	22	362	22.53871	22	22	362	22.53871	22	22	362	22.53871	22	22	362	22.53871	22	22	362	22.53871
23	23	378	23.54888	23	23	378	23.54888	23	23	378	23.54888	23	23	378	23.54888	23	23	378	23.54888	23	23	378	23.54888	23	23	378	23.54888	23	23	378	23.54888	23	23	378	23.54888
24	24	395	24.55904	24	24	395	24.55904	24	24	395	24.55904	24	24	395	24.55904	24	24	395	24.55904	24	24	395	24.55904	24	24	395	24.55904	24	24	395	24.55904	24	24	395	24.55904
25	25	411	25.56921	25	25	411	25.56921	25	25	411	25.56921	25	25	411	25.56921	25	25	411	25.56921	25	25	411	25.56921	25	25	411	25.56921	25	25	411	25.56921	25	25	411	25.56921
26	26	427	26.57937	26	26	427	26.57937	26	26	427	26.57937	26	26	427	26.57937	26	26	427	26.57937	26	26	427	26.57937	26	26	427	26.57937	26	26	427	26.57937	26	26	427	26.57937
27	27	444	27.58953	27	27	444	27.58953	27	27	444	27.58953	27	27	444	27.58953	27	27	444	27.58953	27	27	444	27.58953	27	27	444	27.58953	27	27	444	27.58953	27	27	444	27.58953
28	28	460	28.59970	28	28	460	28.59970	28	28	460	28.59970	28	28	460	28.59970	28	28	460	28.59970	28	28	460	28.59970	28	28	460	28.59970	28	28	460	28.59970	28	28	460	28.59970
29	29	477	29.60986	29	29	477	29.60986	29	29	477	29.60986	29	29	477	29.60986	29	29	477	29.60986	29	29	477	29.60986	29	29	477	29.60986	29	29	477	29.60986	29	29	477	29.60986
30	30	493	30.61999	30	30	493	30.61999	30	30	493	30.61999	30	30	493	30.61999	30	30	493	30.61999	30	30	493	30.61999	30	30	493	30.61999	30	30	493	30.61999	30	30	493	30.61999
31	31	510	31.63014	31	31	510	31.63014	31	31	510	31.63014	31	31	510	31.63014	31	31	510	31.63014	31	31	510	31.63014	31	31	510	31.63014	31	31	510	31.63014	31	31	510	31.63014

THE BALTIMORE STOCK MARKET FOR 1853.

In a former part of the present number of the *Merchants' Magazine*, according to our usual custom, we have given the judiciously prepared annual statement of the Trade and Commerce of the Baltimore *Price Current* of that city for the year 1853. We here subjoin, from the same reliable source, the prices of stocks in the Baltimore market, on the fifteenth of each month during the year 1853:—

QUOTATIONS FOR STOCKS IN THE BALTIMORE MARKET.

	1853.					
	Jan. 15.	Feb. 15.	March 15.	April 15.	May 15.	June 15.
U. S. 6 per cents, 1867.....	119½	118½	119	119
" " 1868.....
Maryland 6 per cents, 1870...	109	106½	108	108	107
" " " 1890...	109½	109½	109	108	107½
" " Coupon bonds.	108
" 5 per cent qua'ly....	100	99	100	98
" 5 per cent sterling...	109	110	110	109
Virginia 6 per cents.....	106
Baltimore 6 per cents, 1860...	105	106	104
" " 1870...	106½	107½	105½	106	107
" " 1890...	107½	109½	108	106½	108	108½
" 5 per cents.....	98½	95	95	91½	93	100
R. & O. R. R. 6 per ct. b'ds, 1854.	99½	100½	100
" " " 1867.	100½	100	97½	98
" " " 1875.	98½	96½	95½	95½	97½	95
" " " 1880.	96½	93	94	96½	95
" " " 1885.	92½	91	92	91½
Park'g. guar., 1873.....	103½	105	104
" convertibles, 1873....	99½	99½
York & Cumberland R. R.	97	97
" guar'd by city....	105	105	107
Chea. & Ohio C. pref. bonds...	64	68	65	65
" guar'd by Virginia..	102½

BANK STOCKS.

Bank of Baltimore.....	101½	102	99½	100½	102½	100
Merchants'.....	110½	112	112	112	113	116½
Union Bank of Maryland....	74½	74½	74½	74½	75	77
Farmers and Merchants.....	41	41½	41½	36	37	39
Com. and Farmers, full period.	41½	40
" " short "....	22½
Marine.....	30½	30½	31	30	30	30½
Farm. and Planters.....	28½	28½	28½	29	29½
Chesapeake.....	25	26	25	26	24
Western.....	21½	21½	21½	21½	21½	21½
Mechanics'.....	19	19	18	18½	18½	18½
Franklin....	12½	12½	12½	12½	13½	13½
Citizens'.....	10½	10½	10	10½	10½	10½
Farmer's Bank of Maryland....	50	51	50
Patap. Bank of Maryland....	22½	23	23½	22½	22½

INSURANCE.

Baltimore Life.....	57½	58	60
Firemen's.....	24	25½	24	23½	24	24
Baltimore Fire.....	13½	14	13½	13½	13½	13½
Associated Fireman's.....	8	8½	8½	8½	8½	8½

RAILROADS.

Baltimore and Ohio.....	98	91	83½	82½	80	72½
Washington Branch.....	112
York and Cumberland.....	23	23	22	21½	21½	20½
Baltimore and Susquehannah..	30½	31	28	30	30

TURNPIKE ROADS.

	1858.					
	Jan. 15.	Feb. 15.	March 15.	April 15.	May 15.	June 15.
Baltimore and Hartford	1
Reisterstown	4½	4½	4	4	4½	4½
York	2
Frederick	8	8½	8½	8½	8½	8½

MISCELLANEOUS.

Baltimore Gas Company.....	115	118	117	117	119
Baltimore Water Co.....	87½	91	91	91	90	90
Union Manufacturing Co.....	13	13	12½	18½	14½	16
Canton Company.....	118	123	*31	28½	31½
Susquehanna Canal.....	15½	15	15
Cumberland Coal & Iron Co....	48
George's Creek Co.....	69½	82	72	78	68	68
New Creek Company.....	2
Maryland Institute	4½	4

PUBLIC LOANS.

	July 15.	Aug. 15.	Sept. 15.	Oct. 15.	Nov. 15.	Dec. 15.
U. S. 6 per cents, 1867.....
“ “ “ 1868.....
Maryland 6 per cents, 1870... 107½	108	108	107	107	108	108
“ “ “ 1890... 108½	109	109½	108	109
“ 6 per ct. Coupon bonds 108½	108½
“ 5 per cent qu'ly.....	99
“ “ sterling.....
Virginia 6 per cents.....
Baltimore 6 per cents, 1860... 107½
“ “ “ 1870... 107½	105	104
“ “ “ 1890... 108	105½	106	104½	102	104½
“ 5 per cents.....	92
R. & O. R. R. 6 per ct. b'ds, 1854.
“ “ “ 1867. 95	90	95	93	92½	95
“ “ “ 1875. 95	90	91	87½	90
“ “ “ 1880. 94
“ “ “ 1885. 92	85	87½	82	80½	84½
Park'g guar., 1873.....	102	100	100	101
“ convertibles, 1873.....	97	96
York and Cumberland R. R....
“ guar'd by city.....	104	104	104	102
Ches. and Ohio C. pref. bonds..
“ guar'd by Virginia..

BANK STOCKS.

Bank of Baltimore.....	100	100	102½	108	102	102½
Merchants'	112	112	112	112	112	116
Union Bank of Maryland.....	75	75½	75½	75	76	77½
Farm. and Merchants'.....	40	39½	40½	39½	39½	40½
Com. and Farm., full period...	40
“ “ short period..
Marine	30½	31½	31½	31½	30	30½
Farm. and Planters'	27	29	29	28	28	28½
Chesapeake	25	25
Western	22	21½	21½	22	22	22
Mechanics'	19½	19½	19½	19½	19	19
Franklin.....	18½	18½	18½	18½
Citizens'	10½	10½	10½	10½	10½	10½
Farmers' Bank of Maryland..	51½
Patap. Bank of Maryland.....

* Reduced shares.

INSURANCE.

	1853.					
	July 15.	Aug. 15.	Sept. 15.	Oct. 15.	Nov. 15.	Dec. 15.
Baltimore Life
Firemen's	23½	23	23½	23½	24	24½
Baltimore Fire	13	14	14½	14	14	14½
Associated Firemen's	8½	8½	8½	9	9½

RAILROADS.

Baltimore and Ohio	71½	62	61	55½	57½	55½
Washington Branch
York and Cumberland	20½	19	19	19½	18½	18½
Baltimore and Susquehannah ..	28

TURNPIKE ROADS.

Baltimore and Hartford
Reisterstown	4½	4½	4½	4½	4½	4½
York	2
Frederick	3½	3½	3½	3½	3½

MISCELLANEOUS.

Baltimore Gas Company	118	120	120	120	120	120
Baltimore Water Co.	90	90	91	91	90	90
Union Manufacturing Co.	16	15½	15	15½
Canton Company	28½	28½
Susquehannah Canal	14
Cumberland Coal & Iron Co. ..	47	38	37
George's Creek Co.	63	50	50	50
New Creek Co.	8	2½	2½	2½	2½	2½
Maryland Institute	4	4	4	4

UNITED STATES TREASURY NOTES OUTSTANDING.

Amount outstanding of the several issues prior to 22d July, 1846, as per records of this office	\$103,761 64
Amount outstanding of the issue of 22d July, 1846, as per records of this office	8,100 00
Amount outstanding of the issue of 28th January, 1847, as per records of this office	2,500 00
	<hr/>
	\$114,361 64
Deduct cancelled notes in the hands of accounting officers, all under acts prior to 22d July, 1846	150 00
	<hr/>
	\$114,211 64

TREASURY DEPARTMENT,
Register's Office, Jan. 3, 1854.

F. BIGGER, Register.

DOLLARS IN CHINA.

The Boston *Daily Advertiser* has received a Gazette, supplement to the *China Mail*, of September 29, which, among other public documents, contains a communication from the Imperial Commissioner, Yan, Governor-General of the Twang provinces, and a proclamation of the local authorities of Canton, Hoo, and Lee, decreeing that, in consequence of the scarcity of the dollars which have hitherto formed the principal medium of trade, all dollars, whether of the new or old coinage, shall be allowed to circulate among merchants and dealers in one uniform mode, and that the treasury will in future be guided in the receipt of dollars by their purity, without raising any question whether they bear the "devices of eagles, horses, flowers, or plants, at one and the same rate as those with flowery millings." This decree apparently authorizes the receipt of United States, Mexican, Peruvian, and Bolivian dollars on the same footing as Spanish milled dollars, subject to an allowance for difference of purity and weight when ascertained.

SELF-IMPOSED TAXATION IN ENGLAND.

Tea and coffee are pleasant beverages, and may be said to have become necessities of life with a large number of people; but it is an equally indisputable fact that numbers among the rural population never taste tea or coffee, or, at all events, they use them only on special and rare occasions; and nevertheless these individuals enjoy robust health. Do not, however, let it be imagined that we argue for the disuse of these articles; our feeling is the reverse. The consumption of tea and coffee is commendable, as indicative of improved habits and tastes; and the only room for regret is the costliness of the articles, in consequence of the duties with which they are chargeable. Allowing that the family of a workingman consumes about eight pounds of tea in the course of a year, the amount of his contribution to the State, including the items above noted, will be not more than twenty shillings. If coffee be used instead of tea, the contribution will be very much less. It is not, indeed, in the consumption of either tea or coffee, or in the use of sugar—a confection, by the way, quite unnecessary, if not positively injurious—that the manual laboring classes show any extravagance. Self-imposed taxation, to any extent worth mentioning, lies in another direction—the abusive use of stimulants. We refer to spirits, ale, beer, porter, tobacco, and snuff; these being in reality the articles through whose agency the laboring classes contribute so largely to the national exchequer. On this point we happily do not need to present our own imperfect calculations. The subject was treated with masterly precision by the late G. R. Porter, of the British Board of Trade, in a paper which he read at the late meeting of the British Association. We invite attention to the following abstract of this valuable paper:—

The quantity of spirits of home production consumed in 1849 within the kingdom was—

In England	9,053,676	imperial gallons
Scotland.....	6,985,003	“ “
Ireland	6,978,333	“ “
Together.....	22,962,012	“ “

—the duty upon which quantity amounted to 5,793,881*l*. The wholesale cost, including the duty, would probably amount to about 8,000,000*l*., a sum which would, however, be very far short of that paid by the consumers. According to the best calculations, the retail price to the people of England, Scotland, and Ireland, respectively, in 1849, was 17,381,643*l*., thus divided:—

England	£8,838,768
Scotland	5,889,868
Ireland	3,173,007
	£17,381,643

To this must be added the sum spent for rum, nearly the whole of which is used by the same classes as consume gin and whisky, of which the cost is here estimated. The consumption of rum in 1849 amounted to 3,044,758 imperial gallons, the duty paid on which was 1,142,855*l*. The class of consumers being the same, and the means of distribution nearly if not wholly identical, it may fairly be assumed that the cost to the consumer bears an equal relation to the duty with that assigned to British spirits, in which case the expenditure for this kind of spirit will reach 3,428,565*l*., making the whole outlay of the people for these two descriptions of ardent spirits 20,810,208*l*., thus locally divided:—

England	£8,205,242
Scotland	6,285,114
Ireland	6,319,852
	£20,810,208

If, for the purpose of the calculation, we assume that the population of the three divisions of the United Kingdom was the same in 1849 as it was found to be at the enumeration of 1841, the consumption per head in the year was—

In England.....	0.569 gallons
Scotland.....	2.647 “
Ireland.....	0.853 “

These proportions are such as would fall to the share of each man, woman, and child throughout the land; but it must be evident that many, especially the women and children, can count for very little in the calculation, if indeed they should not be wholly discarded from it. Adopting this latter view, and dividing the quantity consumed among the adult males in all ranks of life, as they were ascertained in 1841, the following portions would fall to the share of each:—

In England.....	2.380 gallons, or about 2 1-3 gallons
Scotland.....	11.168 “ “ 11 1-6 “
Ireland.....	3.469 “ “ 3 1-2 “

On brandy there is expended the sum of 3,281,250*l.* per annum; but this liquor is consumed chiefly by the middle and higher classes. [Of wines of various kinds no account is taken, for they are not used by the classes to whom we are referring.]

While whisky is the chief excisable liquor used in Scotland and Ireland, beer in its various forms is consumed principally in England. By the most careful calculations, it would appear that the sum spent annually on beer, ale, and porter, amounts to 25,383,165*l.*

Next, as regards tobacco, in its various forms. The quantity of manufactured tobacco upon which duty was paid in 1849 was 27,480,621 lbs., and of manufactured tobacco and snuff, 205,066 lbs., yielding a revenue of 4,408,017*l.* 14*s.* 11*d.* The retail price ranges from 4*s.* to 14*s.* per lb., 17-20ths or 85 per cent of the whole being of the lowest price here named, and only about 2 per cent being of the highest quality—proportions which were stated by several respectable manufacturers who gave evidence before a committee of the House of Commons in 1846. On the same authority we are told that an addition is made of other ingredients in the processes of manufacture, amounting to 15 per cent upon the 85 per cent, which consists of cut or shag, and roll tobacco, while the snuff, which comprises 13 out of 15 parts of the remainder, admits of an increased weight to the extent of from 50 to 60 per cent. The average price of six qualities of tobacco is at present 5*s.* 2*d.* per lb., and that of the five qualities of snuff is 7*s.* 6*d.* per lb. The great bulk of the consumption falls upon the lowest-priced quality of tobacco, which is 3*d.* per oz., or 4*s.* per lb. It cannot, therefore, give an exaggerated view of the sum expended for this article, if we assume that lowest price as being paid for the whole. In regard to snuff, a larger proportion of the whole than in the case of tobacco is used by the middling and easy classes, to whom the difference of a penny in the price of an ounce of snuff cannot be any object, and who rarely, if ever, will buy the most inferior quality. The prices, it will be seen, run from 5*s.* 4*d.* to 8*s.* per lb.; if we take the mean of these two prices as the average of the whole—that is, 6*s.* 8*d.* per lb.—we shall probably be within the mark. At these rates, the cost to the consumers generally will be as follows:—

26,862,808 lbs. of tobacco, at 4 <i>s.</i> per lb.....	£5,372,461
5,537,344 lbs. snuff, at 6 <i>s.</i> 8 <i>d.</i>	1,845,781
549,612 lbs. English-made cigars, at 9 <i>s.</i>	247,325
Total for British-manufactured	£7,465,567
205,066 foreign-manufactured, at 12 <i>s.</i>	123,040
Total value as paid by consumers.....	£7,588,607

—which amount would yield 50 per cent above the cost of the tobacco as imported and the duty paid thereon—a moderate increase to defray all the expenses of manufacture, and the charges attendant upon the retailing of an article nearly the whole of which is paid for in copper coins.

If it be conceded that the sums here brought forward are justified by the facts and calculations on which they are based, it would appear that the people, and chiefly the working classes of England, Scotland, and Ireland, voluntarily tax themselves to

the enjoyment of only three articles, neither of which is of any absolute necessity for the following amount:—

British and colonial spirits.....	£20,810,208
Brandy	3,281,250
Total of spirits.....	£24,091,458
Beer of all kinds, exclusive of that brewed in private families	25,383,165
Tobacco and snuff	7,588,607
	£57,063,230

The amount of self-imposed taxation may be judged from these figures, and we may easily imagine the increased degree of comfort and prosperity among the humbler classes generally by the disuse of spirits and other ministrants of intemperance. There is one consideration arising out of this view of the subject which is of a painful character, and which, if it were hopeless of cure, would be most disheartening to all who desire that the moral progress of the people should advance at least at an equal pace with their physical progress. It is, that among the working classes so very large a portion of the earnings of the male head of the family is devoted by him to his personal and sensual gratifications. It has been computed, that among those whose earnings are from 10s. to 15s. weekly, at least one-half is spent by the man upon objects in which the other members of the family have no share. Among artisans earning from 20s. to 30s. weekly, it is said that at least one-third of the amount is in many cases thus selfishly devoted.

That this state of things need not be, and that, if the people generally were better instructed as regards their social duties, it would not be, may safely be inferred from the fact that it is rarely, if ever, found to exist in the numerous cases where earnings not greater than those of the artisan class are all that are gained by the head of the family when employed upon matters where education is necessary. Take even the case of a clerk with a salary of 80*l.* a year—a small fraction beyond 30*s.* a week—and it would be considered quite exceptional if it were found that anything approaching to a fourth part of the earnings were spent upon objects in which the wife and children should have no share. The peer, the merchant, the clerk, the artisan, and the laborer, are all of the same nature, born with the same propensities, and subject to the like influences. It is true, they are placed in very different circumstances—the chief difference being that of their early training—one happily, which it is quite possible in some degree to remedy, and that by means which would in many ways add to the sum of the nation's prosperity and respectability.

Little remains to be added. It must be apparent that through the use of intoxicating agents the manual laboring classes, who are the principal consumers, contribute a very large sum annually to the exchequer—probably ten millions in the aggregate. This is not the place to debate the much-vexed question, whether taxation should be direct or indirect. The fact is at least conclusive that, by the present system, taxation is in a great measure the penalty of improvidence, and comparative exemption from fiscal burdens the reward of the prudently temperate and economical.

REDEMPTION OF UNITED STATES STOCKS.

The Secretary of the Treasury gives official notice that he will redeem, up to the 1st of June next, \$7,000,000 of U. S. Stocks on the following terms:—

1. The par value or amount specified in each certificate.
2. A premium on the stock of the loan authorized by the act of July, 1846, redeemable November 12, 1856, of 6 per cent. On the stock of the loan authorized by the act of 1842, of 15½ per cent. On the stock of the loans authorized by the acts of 1847 and 1848, of 21 per cent; and on the stock of the loan authorized by the act of 1850, commonly called the Texan Indemnity, 10 per cent.
3. Interest on the par of each certificate from January 1, 1854, to the date of the receipt and settlement at the Treasury, with an allowance of one day's interest in addition.

AMERICAN COINS IN PORTO RICO.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE, WASHINGTON, Dec. 29, 1853.

The following information has been received at this Department respecting the value of coin of the United States in Macaquino currency of the Island of Porto Rico, as established by an ordinance of the Spanish government, under date of September 24, 1853:—

GOLD COINAGE.

Double eagles.....	\$21 25
Eagles.....	10 62½
Half eagles.....	5 31¼
Quarter eagles.....	2 65½
Tenth eagles.....	1 06½

SILVER COINAGE.

Dollar.....	\$1 12½
Half dollar.....	56½
Quarter dollar.....	28½

The coins above mentioned are understood to be receivable at all the government offices of the island, and declared a legal tender in circulation at the rates therein expressed.

EXPORT OF SPECIE FROM BOSTON IN 1853.

The export of specie from the port of Boston has been as follows:—

Total for December.....	\$1,253,583 68	Total for June.....	\$672,680 28
“ November.....	593,709 13	“ May.....	468,420 98
“ October.....	788,345 54	“ April.....	166,907 53
“ September.....	509,845 60	“ March.....	21,943 50
“ August.....	246,775 14	“ February.....	425,000 00
“ July.....	613,819 00	“ January.....	8,527 50
Total, 1853.....			\$5,763,517 88
Total, 1852.....			3,495,006 23

CONDITION OF THE BANKS IN MICHIGAN.

The annual reports of the Michigan banks for January, 1854, show the following items:—

Banks.	Capital.	Circulation.	Coin.	Loans.
Michigan State Bank.....	\$151,678	\$350,000	\$104,800	\$434,000
Government Stock Bank....	100,000	130,000	25,000	87,000
M. Insurance Bank.....	200,000	208,000	101,000	503,000
Peninsular Bank.....	201,905	124,000	81,000	473,000
Farmers' and Mec. Bank....	181,000	74,000	5,000	509,000

CONDITION OF THE BANKS OF NEWARK.

The Banks at Newark, New Jersey, show the following returns from January, 1854:—

	Circulation.	Coin.	Loans.
Banking and Insurance Company.....	\$283,000	\$39,000	\$1,060,000
State Bank.....	253,000	50,000	984,000
Mechanics' Bank.....	245,000	65,000	1,030,000
City Bank (Free).....	113,000	11,800	391,000

SILVER COIN AT UNITED STATES MINT.

According to a statement published in the Philadelphia papers, the United States Mint has fully overcome the complaint among small dealers of a want of change. There is now lying at the mint in that city, subject to the call of all who may desire it, over one million of dollars in silver coin. This coin is given out, not as formerly, only in exchange for silver bullion, but in exchange for gold.

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

TARIFF DECISIONS OF THE TREASURY DEPARTMENT.

The following decisions of the Treasury Department, made since the 4th of March, 1853, and not comprehended in the general instructions heretofore issued, (and published in former numbers of the *Merchants' Magazine*,) have been communicated to the collectors and other officers of the customs for their information and government. They are of importance to merchants.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, November 30th, 1853.

ADDITIONAL DUTY of 50 per cent of the duty to which goods are liable, levied under the 17th section of the act of 1842, on the appraised value of the same, is incurred when the goods belong to the manufacturer, or are obtained by other means than by purchase; on goods actually purchased the "additional duty" of 20 per cent on the appraised value is to be charged as provided in the 8th section of the act of 1846.

This duty is not incurred by a simple excess of quantity over the invoice quantity, but only where the *value* of the article, as given in the invoice and entry, shall be 10 per cent below the appraised market value. The regular tariff duty is, however, to be assessed on the excess as ascertained.

ALLOWANCES FOR TARE, LEAKAGE, BREAKAGE, AND DRAFT. It has been decided that none of these allowances, specified in the 58th and 59th sections of the act of 2d March, 1799, can now be made, they being considered inapplicable to imports subject to *ad valorem* duties—allowances of this character, therefore, under existing laws can only be made as follows:—

The actual tare ascertained in the mode specially pointed out in General Instructions No. 11, dated 25th August, 1853.

The *actual leakage or breakage*, incurred during the voyage of importation; the former to be ascertained by gage, and the latter by careful examination of the packages or articles, by the proper officers of the customs.

The allowance for draft (draff or dust) being only applicable to articles in bulk, a reasonable estimate of allowance may be made by weighing or measuring a portion of the article so imported.

ANIMALS IMPORTED FOR BREED. The existing laws simply provide for the exemption from duty of "animals imported for breed."

The declaration of the importer to the fact of their being so imported, made under oath or affirmation, in compliance with the 94th section of the act of 2d March, 1799, is not to be considered conclusive where circumstances may induce a doubt in the mind of the collector; hence a discretion is vested in that officer, who is to determine any question of doubt by the exercise of a sound judgment in view of all the facts and circumstances of the case.

APPRAISEMENT OF MERCHANDISE. The act of 8d March, 1851, amendatory of the acts regulating appraisements, declaring that duties must be assessed on the general market value or wholesale price of merchandise, with costs and charges added, at the period of exportation to the United States, any provision or previous laws which would substitute, as the basis of duty, the general market value at any other period, are necessarily repealed, as inconsistent with the latter provision. It follows that the value of merchandise at the date of purchase, as stated in the invoice, can in no case be legally made the basis of the dutiable value of the importation, unless it be also the market value or wholesale price, at the period of the exportation to the United States.

In all cases when duties are paid on imports under protest, the appraisers will be careful to retain samples of the merchandise, duly designated and marked, so that the quantity and description of the goods may be legally established, should a suit be instituted against the collector. The report, or statement of the appraisement of imports must in each case be in writing and signed, not by initials, but in full, so as to constitute legal proof of the appraisement. This report or statement should be written on the invoice or entry, if practicable, and if not, on a separate paper to be permanently attached to the invoice or entry.

To enable the collector to report additions made on appraisement to the value given in invoices or entries, in compliance with the circulars of the 26th December, 1848, and 9th October, 1850, a record must be faithfully kept of all such additions or advances in which record must be set forth in each case the name of the importer, the merchandise, the vessel in which imported, the value given in the invoice or entry, and advance, made by the appraisement.

The attention of collectors is called to the form No. 5 of the oath to be administered to merchant appraisers on appeal, and form No. 6 of their report appended to Treasury Circular of the 25th August last, a rigid compliance with which must be enforced.

Duties assessed and paid, in conformity with the law, on the appraised value of goods, cannot be refunded on any claim founded exclusively on the decree of a court, pronounced in a case where the only question before it was of libel against the goods, as being undervalued in the invoice, with intent to defraud the revenue. In the trial of such a case, it is conceived the court has no power or authority over the appraisement so made, and its opinion thereto would be extra-judicial.

ARGOLS, OR CRUDE TARTAR. The article imported under the designation and commercially known as "Argols, or Crude Tartar," to be admitted to entry at a duty at 5 per cent ad valorem, as provided in Schedule H of the Tariff Act; unless reported by United States appraisers as *refined, half-refined, or partially refined*, in which case it would become liable to the duty of 20 per cent ad valorem, under the 3d section of the act, as a non-enumerated article.

ARTICLES FOR THE USE OF THE UNITED STATES. By a special act of Congress passed the 29th of March, 1848, books, maps, and charts imported for the use of the library of Congress, are admitted to free entry—"Provided, that if in any case a contract shall have been made with any bookseller, importer, or other person aforesaid, shall have paid the duty, or included the duty in said contract, in such case the duty shall not be remitted."

The "Act to supply deficiencies," &c., passed the 26th January, 1849, in providing for the free admission of *all articles* imported for the use of the United States, contains no similar provision; but a like precaution being deemed necessary and proper under the last-named law, the collector is directed, in cases of any importations alleged to be for the use of the United States, to await the instructions from this Department, which, on its being advised by the proper officer of government, will be transmitted, for the delivery of the articles free of duty or charges, to the agent duly authorized to receive them.

Articles the growth, produce, or manufacture of the United States, exported to a foreign country and brought back to the United States, in the same condition as when exported, are exempted from duty under Schedule I of the existing tariff. In addition to the proof of identity, specified in the Treasury Circular of the 31st December, 1847, it is directed that, before admitting goods, wares, or merchandise so brought back to free entry, the collector shall require the production of certified statements from the custom house in the United States and abroad through which the articles in question had passed, containing particular descriptions of said goods, wares, or merchandise.

ARTICLES IMPORTED FOR THE USE OF CERTAIN ASSOCIATIONS AND SEMINARIES OF LEARNING, mentioned in the civil and diplomatic appropriation act of 12th August, 1848, are to be admitted to free entry only when of the description and character therein designated. *Articles for the use of churches*, it has been decided, are not entitled to exemption from duty under the provisions of this act.

ARTICLES OF TASTE entitled to free entry, as provided in schedule I of the existing tariff act, are limited to paintings and statuary, imported in good faith as objects of taste and not merchandise.

ARTICLES IMPORTED FOR THE USE OF FOREIGN LEGATIONS IN THE UNITED STATES. The exemption from duty, accorded by comity, to all articles intended for the personal or family use of foreign ambassadors, ministers, or charges d'affaires to the United States, is not to be extended to the importations of Secretaries of Legation, Attaches, or Consuls.

ARTICLES OF MINISTERS OR CHARGE D'AFFAIRES OF THE UNITED STATES to foreign governments, returning home, and having belonged to them while abroad, to be entitled to free entry, if brought with them, or when shipped to the United States on their account.

ARTICLES OR PACKAGES LOST. It has been decided by the Department that no allowance or abatement of duties can be made in the estimate of duties, for any missing article or package, entered on the invoice or bill of lading, unless satisfactory proof be

adduced that it was not shipped; or, being shipped, that it was lost or destroyed during the voyage of importation, and before the vessel arrived in a collection district of the United States. After such arrival, no allowance can be made for loss or injury sustained in the transportation of goods from one district to another. If articles or packages are lost while in the custody of the United States appraisers, the owner may be entitled to remuneration in the actual cost of the same, with return of any duties he may have paid on the goods, but no such allowance can be made for loss or injury sustained with regard to goods under bond in public warehouse.

Books. Editions published abroad of works of American citizens, when imported into the United States, do not come within the exemption of duty provided by law, as personal effects or otherwise. Editions of foreign reviews and magazines, intended to take the place of the reprints of the books in the United States, cannot, whatever be the contract rate at which they are furnished to importers, be taken by the United States appraisers, in estimating the duties, at a lower valuation than the wholesale price of similar books in the general foreign market, at the period of the exportation to the United States.

CANAL BOATS. The exemption of canal boats from the payment of fees and hospital money, as provided by the act of 20th July, 1846, cannot extend to boats or barges exceeding fifty tons, although without masts, or steam-power within themselves, when the usual practice of such boats or barges is to come out of the canals, and trade, by the aid of steamboats and propellers, on natural navigable waters, from district to district, such boats or barges thus becoming liable to the regular payment of hospital money and fees, beside being by law required to be registered, licensed, or enrolled and licensed, and governed by the several provisions of the laws regulating the coasting trade.

CASES OR HOGSHEADS, of American manufacture, exported from the United States empty, and returned filled with molasses, to be included among the dutiable charges, not being, when so imported, "in the same condition" as when exported, as required by the provisions of schedule I of the existing tariff act.

CHAINS, for mooring vessels, of foreign manufacture, imported for the purpose of being left in the United States as mooring chains for a line of foreign steam packets, become liable on being landed to the charge of duty provided in the existing tariff act, as manufactures of iron.

CHARGES FOR TRANSPORTATION OF FREIGHT. As a general rule, when goods are transported from the place of their production or manufacture to another port, and thence transhipped to the United States, the cost of transportation from the first to the second port, together with the cost of transshipment, and other shipping expenses at such shipping port, are to be added to the value of the goods at their place of production or manufacture, at the time of exportation from the last port of shipment to the United States, in making up the dutiable value of the same; as in the shipment of wines from Malaga to Valparaiso, and thence to San Francisco in California; or of iron or coal from Cardiff or Newport in Wales, to Liverpool; or from Troon or Glasgow, to Londonderry, and thence, or from Liverpool, transhipped direct for San Francisco. Exceptions in the application of this rule are, however, in some instances to be made, from the peculiar circumstances of the case; as, for example, where goods are shipped in good faith from any shipping port in Europe, their destination declared to be for any port of entry of the United States on the coast of the Pacific, to be transported across the Isthmus of Panama. In such cases neither the freight from the port of departure in Europe to the Isthmus, nor the charge of transit over the same; nor the final freight or transportation from Panama to their destined port in the United States on the Pacific, is to be added, in their appraisement, in estimating the dutiable value of the goods. The appraisement must, however, exhibit the true market value or wholesale price of the goods, in the principal markets of the country whence originally shipped, on the destination before mentioned, at the period of exportation to the United States. In like manner, goods shipped at Colon, or any other port of South America on the coast of the Pacific, destined for a port of the United States on the Atlantic, via the Isthmus of Panama, are exempt from the payment of duty on any of the charges of freight or transportation.

CHERRY ROOT, not being one of the several roots specially mentioned in the existing tariff act, as liable to various rates of duty, becomes entitled to free entry, under schedule I, as necessarily included in the provisions regarding "roots not otherwise provided for."

COAL MEASURES. The measures to be used for ascertaining the quantity of imported

coal, will be tubs containing, when even full, three heaped bushels, equivalent to three and three quarters struck bushels. They will be constructed of the following dimensions, to wit:—

INTERIOR DIMENSIONS.

14½	inches depth.
25 7-10	“ breadth of bottom.
27 6-10	“ “ “ top.

In the measurement of coal these tubs will be filled even full, and will be estimated as containing three bushels each.

COCOA WINE. If, on examination, it appears to the satisfaction of the collector that the article so named is not imported to be used as a beverage, like the wines of Commerce, but is exclusively used medicinally—it is to be considered as entitled to duty as a medicinal preparation, at a duty of 30 per cent *ad valorem*.

COMMISSIONS. At the usual rates, but not less than 2½ per cent, as regulated by the law and Treasury Instructions, No. 8, dated 25th of August last, are chargeable on the cost of the goods, with addition of the expenses of packing, baling and boxing, transportation to the place of exportation to the United States, and of transshipment and other shipping charges at such port.

CONCENTRATED MOLASSES OR MELADO. The article imported under such designation, being brought by process of manufacture to the point of crystalization, is to be considered as inferior sugar, and is to be so taken in the appraisement, ascertainment and estimate of the foreign general market value of the article.

CONCENTRATED LEMON JUICE. The article having gone through a process of preparation for the purpose of being used in calico printing, is taken out of the classification, made in schedule G, of the existing tariff act, as “lemon juice,” and becomes liable to the duty of 20 per cent under the 3d section of the act, as a non-enumerated article.

COPPER IN PLATES, 8½ inches in length, 6½ inches in width, and ¼ of an inch in thickness, not being considered a “manufacture of copper,” as provided for in schedule G, nor “copper in pigs or bars,” as provided for in schedule H, necessarily becomes liable to the duty of 20 per cent, as a non-enumerated article under the provisions of the 3d section of the tariff act.

CROCHET NEEDLES, not considered as comprehended in the class of needles specified in schedule E of the tariff act, but liable to duty as “manufactures” according to the material of which they are composed.

CRUCIBLES OF PLATINA, specifically imported for the use of a scientific school, to be exempt from the payment of duty, under the provisions of the 1st section of the Civil and Diplomatic Appropriation Act of 12th August, 1848.

CURRENCIES. The list of foreign currencies, the value of which has been fixed by the laws of the United States, has been given in the general instructions from the department, No. 8, dated the 25th August, 1853. The department, having received satisfactory information of the depreciation of the currencies of Austria, Chili, Bolivia, Peru, Porto Rico, and Nova Scotia, collectors are advised that, on invoices of merchandise, made out in such depreciated currencies, with certificates of United States Consuls annexed, being presented, they may be received by the collectors, subject, however, to the restrictions contained in circular instructions of the department No. 6, dated the 19th September, 1851.

DEFICIENCIES. Under the decisions of the Supreme Court of the United States, allowance is to be made, in the assessment of the duties, for deficiencies in importations of merchandise, the duty to be assessed only on the value of the quantity received of sugars, molasses, liquors, oils, &c., arising from actual drainage, leakage, or damage; but no allowance can be made for the shrinking or drying of articles during the voyage of importation, where the full quantity shipped of such articles as per invoice has been landed, and no further allowance under the 59th section of the general collection act of 2d March, 1799.

DISCOUNTS. In conformity with the regulations established in general instructions, No. 8, dated 25th August, and No. 12, dated 6th October, 1853, the usual discount may be allowed, in the estimate of duties, if claimed on the invoice of goods shipped by the manufacturer, to be sold on account, *provided* the oaths or affirmations are made by the manufacturer and consignee, as prescribed by existing laws; and provided further, that the deduction of such discount do not reduce the invoice below the general market value of the goods, at the time of shipment to the United States.

DISCRIMINATING DUTIES. It appearing from a communication from the charge affairs of Spain, dated 23d August, 1853, as well as from the certificate of the American Consul at Teneriffe, dated 19th April, 1853, that by a royal Spanish decree, dated 11th July, 1852, and proclaimed in the said island on the 10th of October, 1852, American vessels and their cargoes arriving in said island after the said 10th October, 1852, were placed on the same footing with the vessels of Spain and their cargoes. No discriminating duty is to be levied on Spanish vessels or their cargoes from that island arriving in ports of the United States, provided that on each such arrival there be filed with the collector of the port in which the vessel arrives, a certificate of the American consul at said island, showing that the said Spanish decree remains in full force.

EMIGRANTS arriving in the United States to be entitled to the free entry of their household and personal effects, together with their tools, implements and instruments of trade or profession, comprehending any apparatus or machine worked by manual power exclusively.

ENGRAVINGS OR PLATES, bound or unbound, are entitled to entry at a duty of 10 per cent, as provided in schedule G, but when in frames, the frame is liable to a further duty as a manufactured article, according to the materials composing it.

ERROR IN THE ASSESSMENT OF DUTIES. Where the correction of such errors is claimed, without proof of protest as required in all other claims for return of excess of duty paid, such claim cannot be entertained and considered by the department, unless it appear by the certified statement of the collector, that it has been presented to the collector within one year from the time of payment of the duties alleged to have been exacted in error.

EXCESS IN WEIGHT, over the invoice quantity, when arising from the damaged condition of the article, as in the case of indigo partially saturated with sea water, is not considered liable to duty, the assessment, in such cases, being properly limited to the invoice quantity.

FABRICS, composed of silk and metal, or silk, cotton, and metal, are entitled to entry at a duty of 25 per cent ad valorem, as provided in schedule D. of the tariff act on manufactures composed in part of silk, unless the metal be the component material of chief value, in which case the fabric would be liable to the duty of 30 per cent ad valorem, under special provision in regard to that component material in schedule C. If the fabric be composed of silk, paper, and metal, although metal be not the component material of chief value, the fabric would be still liable to the duty of 30 per cent; any manufacture composed in part of paper being subject to that rate of duty by the provisions of schedule C of the existing tariff act.

FEEs, for weighing, gauging, or measuring imports, under the provision in the 4th section of the tariff act of 1848, it has been decided by the courts of the United States, can be legally exacted of the importer only, in cases where the invoice or entry shall not contain the weight, or quantity, or measure of the merchandise weighed, gauged, or measured. This decision of the courts is acquiesced in by this department, but whenever the weighing, gauging, or measuring shall disclose a difference between the actual weight or quantity, and that specified in the invoice or entry, affording a well-grounded presumption of fraud, the collector will advise with the United States District Attorney on the case, and will be governed by his opinion as to the propriety of instituting legal proceedings for enforcing the penalty provided by law.

FIGURES of porcelain, or other material, of an obscene or indecent character are liable to seizure and to be labeled under the provisions of 28th section of the tariff act of 30th August, 1842.

FISH, caught in the lakes, near the Canada shores or islands, by American fishermen, and brought by them into ports of the United States, fresh or put up in American barrels, with American salt, are exempt from duty under provisions of schedule I of the existing tariff act, provided they are so brought into the United States in an American vessel, duly licensed for the fisheries; otherwise they become liable to a duty of 20 per cent, as provided in schedule E of said act.

GLASS. No decision of this department has recognized as "window glass," entitled to entry at a duty of 20 per cent ad valorem, any other than the "broad crown or cylinder glass," specified in schedule E. Glass ground on one side must be taken as a "manufacture of glass," provided for in schedule C; and if "colored or stained," it is found in the same schedule, charged with a duty of thirty per cent ad valorem.

GLASS, JARS, specially imported for a school or college, are exempt from the payment of duty under the provision of the act of the 12th August, 1848.

GRAIN, brought from Canada into the United States, there ground into flour, and thence exported back to Canada, is not entitled thereby to a drawback of the duties paid on importation, the article not being in the same condition as when imported into the United States.

HORSES, purchased by officers of the army of the United States, or others, on their own account, and not as authorized agents of the government, and brought into the United States from the adjacent foreign possessions, are not exempt from the payment of duty by any provisions of law.

INDIANS. Under the provision of the 105th section of the general collection act of 2d March, 1799, peltries may be brought into the United States by Indians from the adjacent foreign possessions: and also the goods and effects bona fide their property, provided the said goods and effects are moderate in quantity and value, and usual among Indians. The officers of the customs have been enjoined in General Instructions No. 11, dated 22d September, 1853, to exercise vigilance in preventing or detecting the illegal introduction of foreign dutiable merchandise into the United States by means of the agency of Indians; and it has been decided by this Department that such articles as shingle and stave bolts, cord wood, salted fish in barrels, cattle, horses, and agricultural products, when brought into the United States by Indians from the neighboring foreign possessions, in quantities, for sale or on contract, as merchandise, are not entitled to entry free of duty, under the law.

INDIAN CORN, OR MAIZE. This article is not admissible without the payment of duty, as seeds for agricultural purposes, being specified in schedule E of the tariff act as charged with a duty of 20 per cent ad valorem.

INDIA RUBBER, when in a liquid state, to be admitted as unmanufactured, at a duty of 10 per cent, as provided in schedule G of the existing tariff act.

INVOICES. Shipments of merchandise by several vessels cannot be embraced in a single invoice, and be covered by a single consular certificate. The merchandise shipped by each vessel must be embraced in a single invoice, duly verified, if on foreign account, by oath of the owner, and authenticated by consular certificate. Foreign merchandise destined for a port of the United States by way of the River St. Lawrence, is not unfrequently transhipped from the importing vessel to one or more vessels of light draft, and on arrival at the port of destination is found to be unaccompanied by the documents entitling it to entry.

Where all the articles embraced in the invoice are transhipped on the St. Lawrence to a single vessel, the proper invoice must be presented on entry, together with a copy of the clearance from the foreign port of exportation of the vessel from which the transhipment took place, certified to be a true copy by the collector or other chief revenue officer of the Canadian port at which the vessel was entered. When the articles embraced in a single invoice are transhipped on the St. Lawrence to several vessels, they will be admitted to entry on the production of the proper invoice, and a statement under oath of the person or agent superintending the transhipment, describing the articles, by numbers, marks, &c., transhipped to each vessel, and stating in what invoice they are embraced, together with the certified copy of the clearance of the importing vessels, as above required.

INVOICE AND MANIFEST. The attention of collectors of the customs in districts adjacent to foreign territory is called to those provisions of General Instructions No. 7, which relate to the *manifest* prescribed in the act of March 2d, 1821, entitled "An act further to regulate the entry of merchandise imported into the United States, from any adjacent territory," and the *invoice* required by the act of March 1st, 1823, supplementary to and amendatory of the general collection law of 2d March, 1799.

Whenever the importer presents an invoice or manifest of the description referred to in General Instructions No. 7, duly supported by oath, he may be permitted as well to enter for warehousing as consumption; and the warehouse regulations heretofore prescribed by the department are modified to that extent; and if the goods are withdrawn for transportation under bond to another district, the triplicate copy of the entry with the duty estimated thereon required by the regulations to be forwarded to the collector of the district to which the goods are destined, will be accompanied by a certified copy of the invoice or manifest, (as the one or the other has been presented on the original warehouse entry,) with the appraisers' report thereon.

IRON ORE, imported into the United States from the adjacent British possessions, or elsewhere, to be charged as provided in schedule O of the existing tariff act, with a duty of 80 per cent ad valorem.

LINSEED OIL. It being represented to the department that diversity of practice prevails at some of the ports in the mode of ascertaining the quantity imported of this

article, collectors are instructed that, as well in order to the assessment of duties as for statistical purposes, such quantity must uniformly be ascertained by gage.

LOGS OF PINE AND OTHER WOOD, sent from the adjacent foreign possessions, to be sawed into lumber in the United States and then exported back to said possessions, to be liable to the charge of duty on importation, which cannot be returned as drawback on exportation, the article not being in the same condition as when imported.

MACHINES for making paper or other uses of manufacture, cannot be admitted to free entry under the law, as models of machinery, if, as imported, they cannot be "fitted for use."

MARBLE BLOCKS, imported for the cemetery of a benevolent society, or for any other purpose than the use of the United States, cannot be admitted without the payment of the duty provided by law.

MEDALLIAN CASTS, in plaster, from antique gems, are not admitted to free entry, either as "objects of taste," or as "medals or other antiquities," and become liable on importation to the duty of 20 per cent ad valorem, as non enumerated articles.

OLD TYPE, brought from the adjacent British possessions, and represented as originally of American manufacture, and as being imported for the purpose of being recast, and returned to the said possessions, are chargeable with duty on their importation, as specially provided for in schedule E of the existing tariff act; and no drawback of duties can be allowed on their exportation as new type, the condition of the article being essentially changed.

PAPER CLIPPINGS AND SHAVINGS, intended for the purpose of being ground into a pulp for making paper. This article is not specified in the law, but bearing a similitude, particularly in the use to which it may be applied, to "*rags* of whatever material," provided for in schedule H of the tariff act of 1846, becomes, under the operation of the 2d section of the act of the 10th August, 1843, entitled to entry at a duty of 5 per cent ad valorem.

PICUL. On importations of hemp from Manilla, the *picul* to be taken at 135 lbs.

PLATINA. It being satisfactorily ascertained that this article is never imported into the United States in an absolutely crude state, it has been decided by the Department that the exemption from duty, provided in schedule I of the tariff act of 1846, of platina unmanufactured, extends to and comprehends platina imported either in ingots or in the form of sheets, used in the manufacture of retorts and other vessels, or in the form of wire used by dentists in the manufacture of pivots for artificial teeth, or generally to the substance platina, in any shape or form not constituting an article suitable for use without further manufacture.

PROTESTS. In order to the allowance of a return of excess of duties claimed under the provisions of existing laws, and decisions of courts of the United States, authorizing the return of duties paid, the certified statements transmitted by the collectors of the customs must show that the protest prescribed by such laws or decisions of courts and required by this department, was duly made at or before the time of the payment of the duties on each several importation mentioned in the said statement, it being decided by this department, in conformity with the judicial decisions, that a general protest, made on any one importation, cannot be taken as extending and applying to future importations of a similar character.

SAMPLES OF GOODS. The class of articles under this title, considered by this Department admissible free of duty, must be only such as small strips or pieces of silk, cotton, or other fabrics; small quantities of raw material, and generally articles of any description having little or no intrinsic value as merchandise; in regard to which the proper officers of the customs, in their examinations, are to exercise a reasonable discretion, it being understood that articles of a certain value, although imported under the designation of samples, such as pieces of carpeting, which, from their size and form, are suitable for and sold as rugs or bed sides, &c., can be exempted from the payment of duty.

SHOE, SLIPPER, BOOT, BOOTEE, OR BUTTON STUFFS, of mohair cloth, silk twist, or any other fabric of cloth suitable for the manufacture of those articles exclusively, are entitled, under the provision in schedule H of the existing tariff act, to entry at a duty of five per cent ad valorem. To be so admitted, however, the importation must be in strips or pieces, or so punctured or worked, or stamped in figures, colored or otherwise, as to render them unsuitable for other purposes than the manufacture of the articles enumerated in the law. Plain cloths, although cut or punctured at the edges, but leaving uninjured material sufficient and suitable for other uses, cannot be so admitted; and manufactures of leather and silk, imported in the shape of uppers of shoes or slip-

pers, do not come within the provision of law referred to, but are liable to the duty of 30 per cent under the provisions of schedule C of the existing tariff act.

SPARS, or other articles of wood, floated across a river or lake, from an adjacent foreign possession, into the United States, become liable to the appropriate rate of duty, according to their distinctive character as provided by law, and specially referred to in general instructions No. 11, dated 22d September, 1853.

STATUARY, when imported as objects of taste, is entitled to free entry. The term **statuary**, as used in the law, is understood to be confined in its application to "figures representing living or deceased creatures, of whatever species, real or imaginary, in full relievio, insulated on every part," and which may be formed of marble, plaster, bronze, or other material appropriate to composition of an "object of taste." Sculptures of figures, in mezzo relievio, cannot, therefore, consistently with the construction of the law given by this Department, be admitted to free entry.

STONES FOR BUILDING, to be liable, under the provisions of schedule G of the existing tariff act, to a duty of 10 per cent ad valorem.

SWEDISH GERMAN STEEL. This article being known to the trade as "German steel," although coming from countries other than Germany, on the principle established by courts of the United States, is to be admitted to entry as "German steel," at a duty of 15 per cent ad valorem, as provided in schedule F of the tariff act.

VENETIAN RED, chargeable as an ochre with the duty of 30 per cent ad valorem, as provided in schedule C of the tariff act.

WAREHOUSING AND RE WAREHOUSING. As duties payable on merchandise transported in bond and re-warehoused under the warehousing law and regulations, are collected according to the ascertainment and estimate made at the port of original entry and warehousing, collectors and other officers of the customs are instructed to cause the utmost care to be used in all the acts necessary in determining the exact quantity, quality, dutiable value, such as weighing, gauging, measuring, and appraising, in order to ascertain the precise amount of duties chargeable on the merchandise imported.

WITNESSES. Where the United States district attorney requires the attendance of witnesses on behalf of the collector of the customs, in revenue cases, the latter will advance the necessary fees, in order that proper and legal service may be made.

JAMES GUTHRIE, Secretary of the Treasury.

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.

B. W. WHITE, of Bear Spring Seminary, Giles County, Tennessee, thinks it entirely unnecessary to have three or four different kinds of weights. Writing to the *Scientific American*, he says:—

"I have found, by many years' experience in teaching, that it is very perplexing to students, and unnecessarily retards their progress, in having to learn so many tables, and still more perplexing to go through the exercises under these tables."

Mr. White proposes the following substitute for what he objects to:—

Let Apothecaries' and Troy weight be abolished, and let us have such divisions of the lower denominations of Avoirdupois weight as may be necessary to express the smallest quantities desired. And where is the necessity for so many kinds of measure? If all our measures of capacity have the same unit, why not have the same number of units for the same denomination in all the tables? Let us have but one measure for all solids and liquids, and let our present standard of dry measure be made that standard. Our tables of long, square, and solid measure, I would not have altered. There is a vast deal of ignorance among the people on this subject, particularly in reference to measures. Many do not seem to know that Congress alone has power to establish weights and measures; and hence we hear of Tennessee measure, Alabama measure, &c. Such a State gives 32 quarts to the bushel, and another gives 40 quarts, &c. Now if a cubic inch is the measuring unit, and the law requires a bushel to contain 2150.4 of these units, the value of a bushel will not be changed by dividing it into 32 parts, or into 32,000 parts; for the sum of the parts is equal to the whole. But if a quart is one thirty-second part of 2150.4 inches equal 67.2 inches, then no community has a right to set up a standard that requires 40 quarts, or any other number of quarts to the bushel, inasmuch as it would be an open violation of the Constitution.

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

For full statistics of the Commerce of New York for the year ending December 31st, 1853, &c., see our "COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE AND REVIEW," in subsequent pages of the present number of the *Merchants' Magazine*.

CANADIAN TRADE STATISTICS.

TAKEN FROM THE DISPATCH OF THE GOVERNOR-GENERAL OF CANADA.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF CANADA DURING THE FOLLOWING YEARS.

	Imports.			Exports.		
	£	\$	cts	£	\$	cts
1842.....	2,127,643	5	8	1,291,213	9	10
1843.....	1,990,115	3	11	1,317,958	14	8
1844.....	3,559,767	16	10	1,680,350	6	0
1845.....	3,444,925	6	8	2,084,930	6	9
1846.....	3,711,633	15	6	1,965,004	9	9
1847.....	2,966,870	15	0	2,203,054	3	8
1848.....	2,628,584	17	11	2,302,830	17	6
1849.....	2,469,130	6	9	2,163,078	8	3
1850.....	3,489,466	3	5	2,457,786	1	2
1851.....	4,404,409	0	2	2,663,983	14	4

The following is a statement of the number and tonnage of vessels entered inwards and outwards at the ports of Quebec and Montreal, in each of the seven years preceding 1852:—

	Ships.	Tonnage.		Ships.	Tonnage.
1845.....	1,699	628,389	1849.....	1,323	502,613
1846.....	1,669	623,791	1850.....	1,341	475,905
1847.....	1,444	542,505	1851.....	1,469	573,397
1848.....	1,350	494,247			

During the earlier years of this series an impulse was given to the trade of Quebec and Montreal, by the preference accorded in the markets of Great Britain to produce conveyed by the route of the St. Lawrence. Since that preference has been withdrawn, the facilities afforded by the Government of the United States for the transportation in bond of Canadian imports and exports through its territory, and the multiplication of railways connecting the southern bank of the St. Lawrence with different points on the coast, have diverted a portion of the trade of that river from the Canadian seaports to those of the United States.

Return showing the number and tonnage of vessels built at Quebec in each of ten years ending with 1852:—

	Vessels.	Tons.		Vessels.	Tons.
1843.....	48	13,785	1848.....	41	19,999
1844.....	48	14,045	1849.....	36	24,396
1845.....	53	25,147	1850.....	45	30,387
1846.....	40	19,764	1851.....	65	41,505
1847.....	70	37,176	1852.....	42	27,856

Statement showing the number and tonnage of vessels entered inwards and outwards at the port of Quebec in 1852, with cargoes or in ballast:—

INWARDS.		Ships.	Tons.
With cargoes.....		569	224,525
In ballast.....		671	280,499
OUTWARDS.			
With cargoes.....		1,228	518,580
In ballast.....	

Return giving the number of immigrants arrived at the ports of Quebec and New York respectively, for four years:—

	Quebec. New York.			Quebec. New York.	
1849.....	38,494	220,603	1851.....	41,076	289,601
1850.....	32,292	212,796	1852.....	39,176	234,258

Although there was no increase in the gross amount of immigration to Quebec in 1853, it is an interesting fact that it comprised an unusually large proportion (7,256) of foreign emigrants, who could have been attracted to this port only by the superiority of the route.

The progress of Upper Canada, in respect of population, has been remarkable. In the year 1791, the date of the constitutional act, it amounted to 50,000,

In 1811.....	77,000	In 1842.....	486,055
1824.....	151,097	1851.....	952,004
1832.....	261,060		

Some interesting points of comparison between the progress of the United States and Canada, present themselves on a review of the census returns:—

TOTAL FREE POPULATION OF THE UNITED STATES.

In 1840.....	14,582,102	In 1850.....	20,089,909
Increase.....			37.77 per cent.

TOTAL SLAVE POPULATION OF THE UNITED STATES.

In 1840.....	2,487,858	In 1850.....	3,179,587
Increase.....			27.81 per cent.

TOTAL POPULATION OF CANADA.

In 1841.....	1,156,139	In 1851.....	1,842,295
Increase.....			59.34 per cent.

TOTAL POPULATION OF UPPER CANADA.

In 1841.....	465,357	In 1851.....	952,004
Increase.....			104.57 per cent.

WHEAT CROP, UPPER CANADA.

	Bushels.	Each Inhabitant.
In 1841.....	3,221,991	6.60
In 1847.....	7,558,773	10.45
In 1851.....	12,692,852	13.33

Nearly quadrupling itself in ten years.

WHEAT CROP, LOWER CANADA.

	Minots.	Each Inhabitant.
In 1843.....	942,835	1.36
In 1851.....	3,075,868	3.46

The minot is about one-twelfth more than the bushel.

WHEAT CROP, UNITED STATES.

	Bushels.	Each Inhabitant.
In 1850.....	100,479,150	4.38

VALUE OF IMPORTS OF BRITISH GOODS INTO CANADA.

	British Imports.	Population.
In 1851.....	£2,475,648 14 7	1,842,265
About 26s. per head.		

VALUE OF IMPORTS OF BRITISH GOODS INTO THE UNITED STATES.

	British Imports.	Population.
In 1850.....	\$75,159,424	23,246,301
About 13s. per head.		

The British imports into the United States increased in 1851 to \$93,847,996, making about 16s. per head on the estimated population.

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE OF CANADA.

Revenue	£692,206 4 9
Expenditure.....	521,634 11 3

Showing on the financial transactions of the year an excess in revenue over expenditure of..... £170,562 13 7

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF TEAS IN 1853.

COMPARED WITH THE PREVIOUS YEAR.

We subjoin a statement of teas imported into the United States, for the years ending December 31, 1852 and 1853:—

	1852.	1853.
Hyson.....lbs.	1,275,346	1,280,187
Young Hyson.....	13,898,637	14,423,726
Hyson Skin.....	2,631,546	2,671,342
Twankay.....	2,184,805	2,152,672
Gunpowder.....	2,849,240	2,483,127
Imperial.....	1,884,565	1,590,742
Total green.....	23,724,139	24,601,746
Souchong and Congo.....		5,661,719
Oolong.....		7,830,427
Powchong.....		1,971,726
Pecco.....		385,591
Total Black.....	16,188,520	15,369,463
Total Green and Black.....	39,912,659	39,971,209
Increase in 1853—Green.....		877,607
Decrease in 1853—Black.....		819,057
Net increase in 1853.....		58,550
Imports in 1851—Green.....		16,667,000
Imports in 1851—Black.....		13,590,403
Total.....		30,257,403

EXPORT FROM THE UNITED STATES IN 1853.

Hyson.....lbs.	125,654	Twankay.....lbs.	182,656
Young Hyson.....	132,810	Gunpowder.....	103,672
Hyson Skins.....	145,674	Imperial.....	83,830
Total Green.....			774,296
“ Black.....			1,588,601
Total Green and Black.....			2,312,897

NEW VESSELS REGISTERED AT BALTIMORE IN 1853.

The *American* furnishes, from reliable data, the following list of vessels built, registered, &c., at Baltimore, during the year 1853. The exhibit is a satisfactory one, showing that the commercial marine of the port has largely increased during the year, and that the ship-builders have participated in the general prosperity that has attended all branches of business in that city. It will be seen that in 1852 the number of vessels built was 58, and the aggregate tonnage 12,981.01—in 1853 the number of vessels built was 71, and their aggregate tonnage 18,391.62, an increase of 13 in the number of vessels built, and of 5,410.61, or nearly one half in the amount of aggregate tonnage:—

1852.	Tons.	1853.	Tons.
8 ships.....	8,637.04	6 ships.....	4,676.12
7 barks.....	2,724.05	7 barks.....	2,170.73
8 brigs.....	1,615.51	5 brigs.....	952.87
41 schooners.....	4,589.56	38 schooners.....	4,004.26
3 sloops.....	28.77	2 steamers.....	976.83
4 steamboats.....	796.60	—	—
71 vessels.	18,391.62	58 vessels.	12,981.01

PRICE OF FLOUR IN BALTIMORE FROM 1796 TO 1853.

The *Baltimore American*, one of the most reliable journals in the United States, publishes the annexed statement of the price of flour for the first three months of the year, from 1796 to 1853, inclusive. This table possesses peculiar interest at the present moment, showing as it does the great and rapid fluctuations of the market, and stating the fact that at periods when labor did not obtain more than one-half the price it now commands, flour has sold at much higher prices. In 1796, for instance, it sold as high as \$15 a barrel, and at \$14 25 in 1817.

PRICES OF FLOUR FOR THE FIRST THREE MONTHS OF THE YEAR, FROM 1796 TO 1853, INCLUSIVE.

Years.	January.	February.	March.	Years.	January.	February.	March.
1796.....	\$12 00	\$13 50	\$15 00	1825.....	\$4 87	\$5 12	\$5 12
1797.....	10 00	10 00	10 00	1826.....	4 75	4 62	4 50
1798.....	8 50	8 50	8 50	1827.....	5 75	6 00	4 75
1799.....	9 50	9 50	9 25	1828.....	5 00	4 87	5 75
1800.....	11 50	11 26	11 50	1829.....	8 50	8 25	8 00
1801.....	11 50	11 25	11 50	1830.....	4 62	4 50	4 50
1802.....	7 00	7 00	7 00	1831.....	6 12	6 25	7 00
1803.....	6 50	6 50	6 50	1832.....	5 50	5 50	5 50
1804.....	7 40	7 50	7 00	1833.....	5 75	5 00	5 50
1805.....	11 00	12 25	13 00	1834.....	5 25	5 00	5 87
1806.....	7 50	7 50	7 00	1835.....	4 87	5 00	5 00
1807.....	7 50	7 50	7 50	1836.....	6 50	6 62	6 75
1808*.....	6 00	5 75	5 50	1837.	11 00	11 00	10 75
1809*.....	5 50	7 00	7 00	1838.....	8 75	8 00	8 00
1810†.....	7 75	8 00	8 25	1839.....	8 00	8 25	7 50
1811.....	11 00	10 50	10 50	1840.....	5 37	5 50	4 37
1812.....	10 50	10 12	9 75	1841.....	4 50	4 50	4 25
1813†.....	11 00	10 00	9 50	1842.....	5 87	5 56	5 25
1814†.....	9 25	8 25	8 00	1843.....	3 87	3 68	3 75
1815†.....	8 00	8 00	7 75	1844.....	4 25	4 50	4 62
1816.....	9 00	9 00	8 00	1845.....	4 00	4 25	4 25
1817.....	13 50	13 75	14 25	1846.....	5 25	4 87	4 68
1818.....	10 00	10 75	10 50	1847.....	4 75	5 87	6 12
1819.....	9 00	8 75	8 25	1848.....	6 00	5 50	5 94
1820.....	6 00	5 50	5 00	1849.....	5 00	4 87	4 81
1821.....	4 00	4 00	3 75	1850.....	4 75	4 75	4 62
1822.....	6 25	6 25	6 25	1851.....	5 56	4 50	4 37
1823.....	7 00	6 75	7 00	1852.....	4 00	4 18	4 12
1824.....	6 00	6 00	6 12	1853.....	5 25	5 25	5 00

We have chosen the first three months of the year, January, February, and March, for the foregoing statement, for the reason that flour has generally reached its highest point during those months. In 1847, the Irish famine year, during the month of June flour advanced to \$9 75, although sales were made in November at \$6 12½, from which time it commenced to advance.

We yesterday stated that at one period during the year 1847 there were sales in Baltimore of Howard-street flour at \$10 75 per barrel,—this was correct so far as relates to the store price, but the wholesale and wagon price did not exceed \$9 75. There was a sale made to government, published about this time, of 150 barrels at \$10, but it was never delivered, the agent having withdrawn from his contract before it was legally closed.

IMPORTS OF GENERAL MERCHANDISE.

The *Journal of Commerce*, in publishing the annual statement of the general imports of foreign merchandise at the port of New York, remarks that the list is very suggestive. It says:—

The formidable array of drugs is quite sufficient to account for the expenses of sickness, independently of the charges of the M. D.'s, who are just now striking for higher

* Embargo

† In July and August this year, 11 and 12.

‡ War.

wages. Those who think the trade in toys a small business, will be surprised to see that, in addition to the playthings brought out under other titles, this heading alone shows a total of nearly half a million dollars. There is a large business done in books, the total for the year being \$689,372. Nearly the same value has been imported in buttons; while upwards of two millions of foreign cigars have ended in smoke. The value of foreign goods, entered directly for the Crystal Palace Exhibition, was less than one million of dollars; but a large quantity were also displayed which were taken from the stock entered for sale. How many interesting associations are connected with these details of a trade reaching \$96,000,000!

NAVIGATION OF BALTIMORE IN 1853,

VESSELS ARRIVED AT BALTIMORE DURING THE YEAR 1853, EXCLUSIVE OF BAY CRAFT.

1853.

1852.

	No. of ships.	Barks.	Brigs.	Schooners.	Total.	Total.
January.....	4	13	29	82	128	65
February.....	10	22	19	79	130	159
March.....	17	25	39	88	169	170
April.....	2	24	23	87	136	175
May.....	19	24	24	97	164	163
June.....	25	26	42	96	189	166
July.....	24	29	30	74	157	157
August.....	31	25	30	93	179	165
September.....	26	27	38	93	184	187
October.....	34	27	34	102	197	188
November.....	26	17	19	69	131	152
December.....	30	18	24	127	199	154
Total, 1853....	248	277	351	1,087	1,963	1,889
" 1852....	128	292	401	1,068	1,889	
" 1851....	103	214	346	970	1,633	

NOTE.—The large increase in the number of ships arrived the past year, is to be accounted for by our including all the steamships of the Parker Vein Coal Company's line in that class.

DISTRIBUTION OF COTTON IN EUROPE AND UNITED STATES.

The *New York Journal of Commerce* publishes the following table, furnished by a correspondent, showing the distribution of the cotton supply for the last ten years, expressed by the per centage:—

Years.	Crop and stock, say total supply.	Great Britain. Per ct.	France. Per ct.	North of Europe. Per ct.	Other Foreign ports. Per ct.	United States. Per ct.	Burnt, & stock on hand. Per ct.
1852-3.....	3,354,058	51.78	12.72	5.10	5.77	20.59	4.04
1851-2.....	3,143,920	53.03	13.40	5.37	5.87	19.18	3.13
1850-1.....	2,523,137	56.13	11.94	5.13	5.53	16.02	5.25
1849-50.....	2,251,459	49.16	12.86	5.20	5.40	21.66	7.72
1848-9.....	2,900,964	53.03	12.70	5.71	5.39	17.86	5.31
1847-8.....	2,562,771	51.63	10.89	4.70	5.25	20.75	6.73
1846-7.....	1,885,773	44.06	12.81	4.01	4.94	22.60	11.49
1845-6.....	2,194,663	50.23	16.39	3.95	5.38	19.26	4.79
1844-5.....	2,554,275	56.34	14.06	5.26	5.89	15.22	8.23
1843-4.....	2,124,895	56.50	13.30	3.25	3.54	16.32	7.00
Average per year.....		52.20	13.11	3.57	5.30	18.95	5.87

The total supply figures show the crop of each season, including stock brought over. 1897, that year of European famine, stands out in bold relief, showing the decided effect of high bread prices upon cotton consumption. In it, crop of 1846-47, England, suffering under famine, took 6 per cent less of the supply, viz: 1,835,773 bales, than it had the year before, of viz: 2,194,663 bales. France nearly 2 per cent less; other countries, especially the United States, profiting by the high prices of breadstuffs,

took a larger proportion than usual, consuming equal to half of the quantity taken by Great Britain, yet leaving $11\frac{1}{2}$ per cent of supply as stock on hand. 1848, the year of continental revolutions, favored England's manufacturing interest. It took $51\frac{1}{2}$ per cent of a supply of 2,562,471 bales; France, the chief seat of disturbances, taking but $10\frac{1}{2}$ per cent less than it took of any crop. We are entering upon a new season, with by no means low prices for cotton, with an advancing grain market in Europe and unsettled state of politics threatening war over the European continent, besides an increasing stringency in the leading money markets.

IMPORTS OF COFFEE AT BALTIMORE.

The following table, showing the imports of coffee at the port of Baltimore, is derived from the Coffee Circular of White & Elder, brokers:—

	Imports in bags.	Max. price.	Min. price.	Av. price.
1849.....	219,453	12 c.	6 c.	8 c.
1850.....	190,919	15	$8\frac{1}{2}$	11
1851.....	301,634	$11\frac{1}{2}$	$8\frac{1}{2}$	$9\frac{1}{2}$
1852.....	248,248	$9\frac{1}{2}$	$8\frac{1}{2}$	$9\frac{1}{2}$
1853.....	208,702	$12\frac{1}{2}$	9	10

During the several years enumerated, the stocks have not been, at any time, less than 10,000, or more than 50,000 bags, until July last, when there accumulated 87,000 bags; yet the market held up bravely at $9\frac{1}{2}$ for good average lots.

LUMBER TRADE AT BANGOR IN 1853.

The official report of the lumber trade for 1853, at Bangor, shows a short supply as compared with the year 1852. The lumber surveyor reports the following quantities as surveyed for the two years:—

	1852.	1853.
Feet Green Pine.....	102,443,465	82,540,021
“ Dry Pine.....	21,956,271	9,944,690
“ Spruce.....	63,859,929	78,087,096
“ Hemlock, &c.....	11,129,767	12,370,477
Total.....	199,389,423	182,942,284

NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

NOTICE TO MARINERS.

STOCKHOLM, October 7, 1853.

The royal Ministry of Marine announce, for the information and guidance of seafaring men, that a change in the mode of lighting the beacon upon the *Storjungfru*, which was decreed and notified on the 4th of March last, (namely, that a third-class reflecting light should be established in place of the coal-fire beacon,) has been effected during the past summer; and that the new light which has been ready since the 28th ultimo, will hereafter be continued during the hours ordered for the other light-houses in the kingdom.

The light-tower is built of gray stone, (granite,) plastered and whitewashed, to the height of $46\frac{1}{2}$ feet, where a balcony begins, and a breast-wall of fire-proof brick for the light apparatus. From this a strong fixed light, 57 feet above ground and 88 feet above the sea, (the cliff being 31 feet high,) shines upon the horizon from about N. W. by W. $\frac{1}{2}$ W. around the compass north, east, and south, to S. W. $\frac{1}{2}$ S. The light may be seen from a ship's deck, in clear weather, at a distance of $3\frac{1}{2}$ Swedish sea miles, or 14 English minutes. It is situated in north latitude $61^{\circ} 9' 56''$, east of Ferroe $28^{\circ} 30'$, or east of Greenwich $17^{\circ} 20' 15''$.

As it appears that the building for Holmogadd's Light cannot be completed this year, the present provisional light, of which notice was given in the above-named advertisement, will be continued until next year.

LIGHTS ON THE RIVER ELBE.

NEW LIGHT AT KUGELBAAK, AND CHANGES IN THE OTHER LIGHTS.

HYDROGRAPHIC OFFICE, December 6th, 1853.

Captain E. Abendroth, Chief Pilot of Cuxhaven, has announced that the following changes in the lights on the Elbe will take place about the end of this month:—

1. NEUWERK FIXED LIGHT.

The Low Light on the Island of Neuwerk, at the entrance of the River Elbe, is intended to be screened so as not to be seen by a vessel when it is between the bearings of S. by W. and S. W. by S., or when she is between the buoy No. 5 (V.) and the buoy F. which carries a vane, off Neuwerk Island.

The intention of this arrangement is to apprise vessels coming up the river that they are entering the narrow and dangerous part of the channel, and that it would be prudent therefore to anchor. If, however, they persist in standing on, as soon as the light reappears, they should alter the course from S. E. by E. to E. by S. and even E., in order to allow for the indraft of the Eitzen Loch, which is strong from first to half flood.

2. KUGELBAAK FIXED LIGHT.

At Kugelbaak, or the Ball Beacon, a fixed light is to be established which will be visible between the bearings of S. E. by S. and S. W., or from the buoy J. to the buoy L. or No. 10, (X.)

A vessel coming up the river, on opening this light, being thus apprised that she is to the eastward of the buoy J. should immediately alter her course to S. E. or S. E. $\frac{1}{4}$ S., until the Kugelbaak and Cuxhaven Lights are in one, about S. by E. $\frac{1}{4}$ E., and steer directly for them till she shoals the water to 6 or 4 fathoms, according as it is high or low water. She may then take up a S. E. or S. E. by S. course, so as to bring Cuxhaven Light on her starboard bow. When she has passed the buoy L. she will lose sight of the Kugelbaak Light, and be in 8 or 10 fathoms, from whence a S. by E. course will clear all the shoals up to the anchorage of Cuxhaven, but she should recollect that this Reach is frequently so much crowded by vessels as to require the utmost caution to avoid them.

3. CUXHAVEN LIGHT,

When seen from the lower part of the river, will appear as a *flashing* light, and will thus be distinguished from the fixed light of Kugelbaak.

NEW LIGHTS ON THE COAST OF FRANCE.

1. AT BALEINES POINT, WEST COAST.

HYDROGRAPHIC OFFICE, Nov. 25th, 1853.

The French government has given notice that the present light which revolves in three-quarters of a minute on Baleines Point, (the northwestern extremity of Re Island,) in $46^{\circ} 14' 41''$ N., and $1^{\circ} 33' 27''$ West from Greenwich, will be discontinued on the 15th of January next, and instead thereof these two following lights will be established:—

1. A revolving light on the same Point, at a little distance to the eastward of the present tower, but with intervals of only half a minute between the eclipses. The light will stand 164 feet above the sea, and will be visible 20 miles. The eclipses will not be total within the distance of 10 miles.

2. A fixed light on the reef which projects a mile and a half to the N. W. of Baleines Point. It stands on the rock called the Haut-Banc du Nord, in $46^{\circ} 15' 51''$ North, and $1^{\circ} 34' 59''$ West from Greenwich. It is 29 feet above the sea, and is visible 13 miles.

Navigators are reminded that the dangers off Baleines Point extend more than a mile to seaward from this light.

2. AT PORTRIEUX, NORTH COAST.

Since the 24th of June last, a small fixed red light has been exhibited on the pier of Portrieux, 49 feet within its extremity. It stands in $48^{\circ} 38' 50''$ North, and $2^{\circ} 49' 10''$ West from Greenwich, and being 29 feet above the sea, is visible 13 miles.

3. LIGHTS ON THE CHERBOURG BREAKWATER.

On the 12th of last month a temporary red fixed light was placed on the western head of the Breakwater of Cherbourg, in $49^{\circ} 40' 29''$ north, and $1^{\circ} 38' 40''$ west from Greenwich. Its light is 39 feet above the sea, and it may be seen 10 miles.

A similar temporary fixed, but green light, will be established in the course of December next, on the eastern head of this Breakwater, but its light will not be so much as of that on the western head.

LIGHT ON BEAR ISLAND, MAINE.

A fixed white light will be exhibited on Monday, the 6th day of February, 1854, at sunset, and on each succeeding day from sunset to sunrise, in the light house recently rebuilt to supply the place of the one destroyed by fire last December, on the southwest point of Bear Island, (which is one of the northernmost of the Cranberry Islands, and south of Mount Desert Island.) This light is intended as a guide to vessels entering Cranberry Island, northeast and southwest harbors, and will illuminate $\frac{1}{2}$ of the arc of the horizon.

The tower is constructed of red brick, and is joined to the end of the keeper's dwelling; the roof of the lantern is painted black.

The center of the lantern is 24 feet above the ground, and the base of the tower 83 feet above high water mark.

The light should be visible in good weather from a position ten feet above the water, at the distance of $15\frac{1}{2}$ nautical, or 18 statute miles.

The approximate position of this light as derived from Blunt's Chart, is

Lat. $44^{\circ} 17'$ North,

Lon. $68^{\circ} 17' 30''$ West from Greenwich.

The following magnetic bearings have been taken from the light-house:—

To Baker's Island Light-house, S. E. by S., distant $5\frac{1}{2}$ miles; Monument on Bunker's Dry Ledge, E. by S. $\frac{1}{2}$ S., distant $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles; Granite Ledge, (8 ft. at low water,) E. $\frac{1}{2}$ S., distant 1 mile; outer end of Long Ledge, S. W. $\frac{1}{2}$ S., distant $4\frac{1}{2}$ miles; north-west point of Cranberry Island, S. by W. $\frac{1}{2}$ W., distant 4 miles; Flynn's Ledge, S. W. by S., distant 3 miles.

By order of the Light house Board,

W. B. FRANKLIN,
Corps Topl. Engineers, and Inspector
1st L. H. District.

PORTLAND, ME., Dec. 8, 1853.

BEACON AND LIGHT IN KIEL FIORD.

HYDROGRAPHIC OFFICE, Nov. 25th, 1853.

Her Majesty's Government has been officially informed, that a beacon has recently been placed on the extremity of the covered part of the reef off Friedrichs Ort, in Kiel Fiord.

It consists of an iron rod, fixed in the ground, and carrying, by day, three balls, placed in the form of an equilateral triangle, on the following marks:—The old beacon on the point bearing W. $\frac{1}{2}$ N., (mag.) and the small light shown on the rampart W. N. W.

At night, when the weather will permit, a lantern is suspended from the above new beacon, 16 feet above the sea; and when prevented by storms, drift-ice, or other causes, a lantern will be hung on a pole in the immediate neighborhood of the beacon, but a little above it.

DISCONTINUANCE OF THE REVOLVING LIGHT ON CAPE MACHICHACO,

(NORTH COAST OF SPAIN.)

HYDROGRAPHIC OFFICE, Nov. 24th, 1853.

Her majesty's government has been this day informed that the revolving light on Cape Machichaco, about four leagues to the eastward of Bilbao, in $43^{\circ} 25'$ north, and $2^{\circ} 49' 10''$ west of Greenwich, was discontinued on the 14th inst., for certain repairs required to be made.

JOURNAL OF MINING AND MANUFACTURES.

AN OPIUM FACTORY.

At Ghazeepore, one hot and windy day, I went down to the "opium go-downs" or stores. The atmosphere of a hot and windy day at Ghazeepore, if it should ever be thought suitable for invalids or others, may be inhaled in England by any one who will stand at the open door of an oven and breathe a fog of fried sand cunningly blown therefrom. After a two miles drive through heat, and wind, and odoriferous bazaar, we—I and two friends—found our way to a practicable breach or gateway in a high railing by which the store-house is surrounded. A faint scent as of decaying vegetable matter assailed our noses as we entered the court of the go-down; as for the go-down itself, it was a group of long buildings fashioned in the common Indian style, Venetian-doored, and having a great deal more door than wall. In and out and about these doors there was a movement of scantily clad coolies (porters) bearing on their heads large earthen vessels; these vessels, carefully sealed, contained opium fresh out of the poppy district. Poppy-headed—I mean red-turbaned—accountants bustled about, while burkunday (or policemen) whose brains appeared to be as full of drowsiness as any jar in the go-down, were lazily lounging about, with their swords beside them, or else fastened in sleep beside their swords.

The doorway was shown to us through which we should get at the Sahib, or officer on duty. Entering the doorway, we pushed through a crowd of natives into an atmosphere drugged powerfully with the scent of opium. The members of the crowd were all carrying tin vessels; each vessel was half full of opium, in the form of a black, sticky dough, and contained also a ticket showing the name of the grower, a specimen of whose opium was therein presented, with the names of the village and district in which it was grown.

The can-bearers, eager as cannibals, all crowded round a desk, at which their victim, the gentleman on duty, sat. Cans were flowing in from all sides. On the right hand of the Sahib stood a native Mephistopheles, with sleeves tucked up, who darted his hand into the middle of each can as it came near, pawed the contents with a mysterious rapidity, extracted a bit of the black dough, carried it briskly to his nose, and instantly pronounced in English a number which the Sahib, who has faith in his familiar, inscribed at once in red ink on the ticket. As I approached, Mephistopheles was good enough to hold a dainty morsel to my nose, and call upon me to express the satisfaction of a gourmand. It was a lump of the finest, I was told. So readily can this native tell by the feel of opium whether foreign substance has been added, and so readily can he distinguish by the smell its quality, that this test by Mephistopheles is rarely found to differ much in its result from the more elaborate tests presently to be described. The European official, who was working with the thermometer at a hundred, would be unable to remain longer than four hours at his desk; at the end of that time another would come to release him, and assume his place.

Out of each can, when it was presented for the first rough test, a small portion of the dough was taken, to be carried off into another room. Into this room we were introduced, and found the thermometer working its way up from a hundred and ten degrees to a hundred and twenty. On our left, as we entered, was a table, whereat about half a dozen natives sat, weighing out, in measured portions of one hundred grains, the specimens that had just been sent to them out of the chamber of cans. Each portion of a hundred grains was placed, as it was weighed, upon a small plate by itself, with its own proper ticket by its side. The plates were in the next place carried to another part of the chamber, fitted up with steam baths—not unlike tables in appearance—and about these baths or tables boys were sitting, who with spatulas industriously spread the opium over each plate, as though the plate were bread, and the opium upon it were a piece of butter. This being done over the steam-bath, caused the water to depart out of the drug, and left upon the plate a dry powder, which, being weighed, and found to be about twenty-three grains lighter by the loss of moisture, is called standard opium. If the hundred grains after evaporation leave a residue of more than seventy-seven, the manufacturer is paid a higher price for his more valuable sample; if the water be found in excess, the price paid for the opium-

dough is, of course, lower than the standard. I thought it a quaint sight when I watched the chattering young chemists naked to the waist, at work over their heated tables, grinding vigorously with their blunt knife-blades over what appeared to be a very dirty set of cheese plates. But the heat of this room was so great that we felt in our bodies what was taking place about us, and before there had been time for the reduction of each hundred grains of our own flesh to the standard seventy-seven, we beat a retreat from the chamber of evaporations.

With the curiosity of Bluebeard's wives we proceeded to inspect the mysteries of the next chamber. It was full of vats, and in the vats was opium, and over the vats were ropes depending from the ceiling, and depending from the ropes were naked men—natives—themselves somewhat opium-colored, kicking and stamping lustily within the vats upon the opium; each vat was in fact a mortar, and each man a living pestle, and in this room a quantity of opium—worth more lacs of rupees than I have ever had between my fingers—was being mixed and kneaded by the legs of men, preparatory to being made up into pills. From the chamber of pestles, with curiosity unsated, we went forward to peep into the chamber of the pills.

A rush of imps, in the tight brown dresses furnished to them gratuitously by their mother nature, each imp carrying a bolus in his hand of about the size of a forty-two pound shot, encountered us, and almost laid us prostrate as we entered. This—the fourth—chamber was a long and narrow room quite full of busy natives, every tongue industriously talking, and every finger nimble over work. Around the walls of this room there are low stools placed at even distances, and upon each stool a workman rather squats than sits, having before him a brass cup, of which the interior would fit one half of a bolus. Before each man upon a stool there stands a man without a stool, and a boy with a saucer. The man without a stool has by his side a number of dried poppy leaves, of which he takes a few, and having moistened them in a dark gummy liquid, which is simply composed of the washings of the various vessels used in the establishment, he hands the moistened poppy leaves to the man upon the stool who sits before the cup. The man upon the stool, who has been rubbing the same liquid gum with his fingers over the inner surface of the cup—as housekeepers, I suppose, butter their jelly moulds—proceeds to fit in two or three leaves; then, with his fingers spreads over them more gum; then, adds a few leaves more, and fits them neatly with his closed hand round the bottom of the cup, until he has made a good lining to it. His companion without the stool has, in the meantime, brought to his hand a fixed quantity of opium, a mass weighing two pounds, and this the genius of the stool puts into the cup; leaves are then added on the top of it, and by a series of those dexterous and inscrutably rapid twists of the hand with which all cunning workmen are familiar, he rapidly twists out of his cup a ball of opium, within a yellowish brown coat of leaves, resembling, as I have already said, a forty-two pound shot. He shoots it suddenly into the earthen saucer held out by the boy, and instantly the boy takes to his heels and scampers off with his big pill of opium, which is to be taken into the yard and there exposed to the air until it shall have dried. These pills are called cakes, but they belong, evidently, to the class of unwholesome confectionary. A workman of average dexterity makes seventy such cakes in a day. During the manufacturing season, this factory turns out daily from six thousand five hundred to seven thousand cakes; the number of cakes made in the same factory in one season being altogether about twenty-seven thousand. A large proportion of these cakes are made for the Chinese, but they do not at all agree with the Chinese digestion. The manufacture of the opium is not hurtful to the health of those who are engaged upon the factory.

The key of a fifth chamber being in our power, we continued steadfast in our enterprise, and boldly looked into the chemical test-room of a small laboratory, of which the genius appeared before us suddenly with a benign expression on his countenance, and offered chairs. His clothes are greatly splashed, and he is busy among opium tins, of which the contents have been pronounced suspicious by the Mephistopheles in the first chamber. From the contents of one of these cans an assistant takes a portion, and having made with it a solution in a test tube, hands it to the chemist. The chemist, from bottles in which potent and mysterious spirits are locked up, selecting one, bids it, by the mysterious name of iodine, depart into the solution and declare whether he finds starch to be there. The iodine spirit does its bidding, goes among the opium, and promptly there flashes through the glass a change of color, the appointed signal, by which the magic spirit of the bottle telegraphs to the benign genius of the laboratory that "The grower who sent this opium fraudulently added

flour to it, to increase its weight." The fraud having been exposed, the adulterated drug has a little red ink mark made upon its ticket. The consequence of that mark will be confiscation, and great disappointment to the dealer who attempted a dishonest increase of his gain.

We have nothing more to see, but we have something more to hear, and the very kind chemist will be our informant. There are two opium agencies, one at Patna and one at Ghazeeepore. I know nothing whatever about Patna. For the Ghazeeepore agency the opium is grown in a district lying between its headquarters, Ghazeeepore and Agra. Its cultivation gives employment to one hundred and twenty-seven thousand laborers. The final preparation of the ground takes place in the months of October and November. Under the most favorable circumstances of soil and season, twenty-four or twenty-six pounds weight of standard opium is got from one biggah of land; one biggah being a little more than three-fifths of an acre. Under unfavorable circumstances the yield may be as little as six or eight pounds to the biggah, the average produce being from twelve pounds to sixteen.

To obtain the opium, as is well known, the capsule of the poppy is scored or cut; the scoring is effected with a peculiar tool that makes three or four (vertical and parallel) wounds at a single stroke. This wounding of the hearts of the poppies is commonly the work of women. The wounds having been made, the quantity of juice exuding seems to depend very much upon conditions of the atmosphere. Dews increase the flow, but while they make it more abundant, they cause it also to be darker and more liquid. East winds lessen the exudation. A moderate westerly wind, with dews at night, is the condition most favorable to the opium harvest, both as regards quantity and quality of produce.

The average per centage of morphia in this opium is from one and three quarters to three and a half; of narcotine, from three quarters to three and a half. These are the valuable principles of the drug. In some opium, the per centage of morphia runs up to ten and three quarters per centage of morphia, and six per centage of narcotine.

The income drawn from its opium by the East India Company amounts to some two and a half crores of rupees—two and a half millions of pounds sterling.—*Dickens*.

ANCIENT MINES ON LAKE SUPERIOR.

The Lake Superior region of America is richer than any other region of the world in copper. It is not many years ago since these rich seams of copper were discovered, and with our knowledge of the Indian's character, and our entire ignorance of the history of the past, in respect to the inhabitants of Northern America, it was supposed that our modern discoveries of these minerals were the first ever made by mortal men. The huge mounds scattered over our country have left traces behind them of a race long since passed away, but in a more striking manner have evidences of that race been recently brought to light in the discovery of ancient mines, tools, &c., in the Lake Superior region. In 1848 the first of these old mines was discovered, and in it was found a mass of pure copper, weighing six tons, which had been raised by ancient wedges, and rolled along the gallery. These ancient mines extended over a tract of country 100 miles long, running from N. E. to S. W. A great number of ancient tools have been found, they all consist of hard stone, with single and double grooves for the reception of handles, like those now employed by blacksmiths for holding their wedges.

The marks of old fires extended everywhere, showing that they employed heat in their mining operations—by heating the rock first, then cooling it quickly with water to soften it—the plan for softening copper. When did those ancient miners work these mines, and who were they? Trees of hundreds of years standing, extend their roots on the surface of a soil which have required ages to accumulate, over some of their deepest works. We have no evidence of who those miners were, except by the tools which have been left behind them; but at one time they must have been numerous, for quite a number of their old excavations have been opened up. Is it possible that they were the forefathers of the present race of Indians? It is possible; savage man in all countries is a wreck of former civilization. The descendants of the Greeks and Romans are not like their forefathers; we know them to be wrecks of a former civilization. Tribes and men, separated from communication and contact with others of their species, soon degenerate, and dwindle into the savage state. It is, therefore, quite possible that the old copper mines of the Lake Superior region were the forefathers of the present race of Indians.

IRON: AND THE WAYS FOR CONVERTING IT INTO STEEL.

A late number of *Appleton's Mechanics' Magazine* contains an article on iron, and the various ways for its conversion into steel. The following is a portion of it, which embodies much interesting and valuable information:—

Steel, which has been rendered excessively hard and brittle by heating to redness and suddenly quenching in water, admits of having its hardness reduced, and of acquiring elasticity by a process called "tempering." This admits of the following illustrations:—

Let three strips of elastic steel, of equal length and breadth, and thickness, be placed on a clear, glowing fire; when they become equally red-hot, remove two of them with a pair of tongs, and drop them into cold water; then remove the third, and place it upon the hearth to cool.

Take one of the suddenly-quenched strips, and attempt to bend it by the strength of the hands; it will not bend, but will break short, and will scratch glass; so that the steel by this treatment has become exceedingly brittle and hard.

Take the strip that has slowly cooled upon the hearth; it will bend with the same facility as a similar sized slip of copper would bend; and, like it, will keep the form into which it is bent, and will not scratch glass; so that the steel by this treatment has become extremely flexible and soft.

Lastly, take the remaining strip of suddenly-quenched steel, polish one of its surfaces with emery paper, then let the end of a large iron poker be heated bright-red hot, and afterwards be supported horizontally upon a brick or tile, placed on a table near the light; lay the strip of steel, with its polished surface uppermost, on the red-hot poker in the direction of its length; in the course of a few seconds, the steel will present a curious display of colors, commencing with straw tint, which gradually deepens to brown, next to red, with streaks of purple, and ultimately to fine blue; let it be removed and allowed to cool.

When cold, it will be found to bend with readiness, and to fly back to its original straight form when the bending force is removed: it admits of being scratched with a piece of the brittle, hard strip; so that by this treatment the steel has become less hard than it was, and also regained its elasticity, or technically, it has acquired "spring temper."

The colors that appear upon steel, during the process of tempering, depend upon its iron sustaining slight oxidation, and is therefore rendered capable of decomposing light, and of reflecting some of its chronic rays, or their mixtures; for when polished steel is heated out of the contact of air, it retains its peculiar lustre, and only reflects white light, yet it becomes perfectly tempered to any required extent.

The chemist has accurately determined the degree of heat by which steel may be suitably tempered for various implements, and has communicated another important fact to the artisan, that mercury may be heated to any degree short of its boiling point, so that a thermometer introduced into it will denote the temperature which any given temper will be acquired. The best temper for pen-knives is attained at the straw color. This appears at 450 degrees; accordingly, the mercury is heated to such temperature, and introducing two or three hundred hard steel blades, they will be effectually and simultaneously tempered without involving the tedious necessity of watching the appearance of the straw color upon each individual blade, as must be done if they were placed on heated iron.

The tempering of steel, therefore, consists in reducing its excessive hardness to a moderate degree, by gentle heating, which also restores its toughness and elasticity.

The various colors that announce its fitness for cutting instruments, and the temperature at which they appear if it be heated in air, or at which temper is conferred if it be heated under mercury, are hereby subjoined:—

At 430 deg., very faint yellow, for lancets.

450 " pale straw for razors and scalpels.

470 " full yellow for pen-knives.

490 " brown, for scissors and chisels, for cutting iron.

510 " red, with purple spots, for axes and plane-irons.

" " purple, for table knives and large shears.

550 " bright blue, for swords, watch and bell springs.

560 " full blue, for daggers and fine saws.

600 " dark blue, or almost black, the softest gradation for hand and pit saws.

Steel, if heated still further, becomes perfectly soft.

In the early days of chivalry, the art of tempering steel does not appear to have been so perfectly understood or conducted by British as by foreign artificers, especially those of Milan or Toledo; and as an "armor of proof and trusty sword" were of vital importance to the wearer of such martial panoply, the preference was generally given to foreign manufacture. Many allusions to its popularity may be found scattered throughout the pages of history and historical romance.

Artificers who wrought in steel were formerly held in great estimation. The chief smith was an officer of considerable dignity in Britain, and enjoyed many privileges; among others he was entitled to a draught of every kind of liquor brought into his lord's dining hall, and sat next to the chaplain at meals.

The iron of Sweden is highly prized for the production of steel, and commonly bears the title of "steel iron." It is extremely pure, having been reduced from loadstone or other rich oxides of iron, by the direct action of charcoal, as wood fuel is plentiful in that country, whilst in Britain mineral coal is more abundant, and therefore is generally employed, after coking, in the reduction of iron ores, which, containing a variety of extraneous matters, deteriorate the quality of iron, and can only be removed with difficulty.

When iron is converted into steel by heating with charcoal, its surface always presents a scarified appearance, and is accordingly distinguished as "blistered steel." The exact cause of the blistering is unknown, although it has been referred to the vaporization of a portion of the carbon of the charcoal; but this is highly improbable, as it is eminently distinguished by its extreme fixity in the most intense artificial heat.

Blistered steel, when reduced into smaller bars, and beaten under heavy hammers, forms what is termed "titled steel." The building in which the operation is performed is called "a tilt," not so particularly in allusion to its being covered, as denoted by the word of Teutonic origin, but on account of the workmen when holding the bar of steel sitting in a kind of cradle suspended from the roof, and swinging to and fro as he thrusts, or "tilts," the bar under the hammer. The word "tilt," as applied to this action, and to the rise and fall of the hammer, is of Saxon origin—implying to thrust at, and also to vacillate, or to move up and down.

Tilted steel, when broken, heated, welted, and again forged into bars, is known as "shear steel," from the circumstance of its universal employment in the manufacture of the best shears for sheep-shearing.

English cast steel is another variety of this protean compound of iron and carbon, and is obtained by melting steel with vitrifiable matters and charcoal, then casting it into the form of ingots, which are subsequently gently heated, and carefully hammered, or rolled into the form of smaller bars.

Blistered steel and cast steel contain from 98 to 99 per cent of iron; the remaining portion consists of carbon.

VISIT TO A COAL MINE.

A correspondent of the *New York Journal of Commerce*, writing from the Wyoming Valley, furnishes a pleasant account of a visit of inspection made by himself and party to one of the extensive coal mines in that region. As our readers may feel some interest in learning the mode by which this important and necessary article of fuel is mined, we subjoin the principal portion of the account:—

Beautiful as the valley is, and rich in story of brave old times, you cannot be here long without yielding to the spirit of the age, and admiring the wealth which lies hid under these magnificent mountains. You will have gazed curiously at the heaps of shining coal, and marveled at the idea that this is to be carried from these remote regions and placed on your grates in the city, or used to ferry you across the rivers, or to carry you through the Sound; and you will possibly have peered curiously into one of the numerous black holes which you see on every side, but answered with a peremptory no, any proposition that has been made to show you the interior. This cannot last long, however, and you find yourself some pleasant morning in a suit of regimentals for penetrating the earth, armed with a greasy lamp, your sole weapon wherewith to meet and overcome the darkness of blackness which opens before you.

This morning we formed a party to visit a coal mine, and selecting those at Wilkesbarre as most desirable on account of cleanliness, we filled two carriages with our party, and drove down the valley road through Kingston, and across the Susquehanna to Wilkesbarre. Here we rested only long enough to determine which mine to enter,

and having chosen that of Mr. Hilliard and Captain Bowman, about half a mile from town, we presented ourselves to Mr. McCullough, their energetic head miner, who immediately provided us with the means of entering.

There were three ladies, four gentlemen, and one boy in the party, just enough to fill a car, which, being emptied of its load of coal, had two benches placed lengthwise in it, on which we sat, four and four, facing each other, each gentleman carrying a lamp, and the ladies covering their heads with every available protection from dripping water.

This mine is one of the finest in the valley; that is to say, it penetrates the richest vein ever found, being the same vein with that worked by the Baltimore Company, and between twenty and thirty feet in thickness. The entrance was unusually expensive; and probably had the proprietors anticipated the difficulty they experienced, they would never have attempted the opening. The vein of coal was reached only after penetrating solid rock for one thousand and forty feet.

Through the tunnel thus constructed our car was drawn by a mule, driven by an imp-like boy who carried the never-missing lamp on his cap, and yelled and tormented the mule with truly diabolical spirit and success. Curious exclamations of wonder, terror, laughter, fright, and fun escaped from the ladies, who began to wish themselves out before the sunlight disappeared; but their courage increased as we advanced, and was up at full height when the guide, stopping the car, informed us we were at the coal. It looked very much as if we were. Profound blackness was all around us, and he might have told us that we were at the coal a hundred feet back, and it would probably have looked as much like it. But as our eyes became accustomed to the lamp-light, we could see an occasional gleam from the walls of the cavern, which had now greatly enlarged, and at length we approached the sides and admired the glowing ebony walls and shining points. We now walked on, with rather damp footing, in a confusion of mules, and cars, and miners, out of which chaos it seemed impossible for any one to extract order. But a brief view showed that all was going on regularly, and we began to understand ourselves.

The vein lay on an inclination of perhaps thirty degrees with the horizon, and of course part of the mine was on a higher level. From this higher gangway, or mine, the shutes were constantly pouring down their masses into the cars below, and these as fast as filled were arranged in trains of five or seven and sent out to daylight through the tunnel by which we had entered. A large furnace glowed in the upper level, kept constantly burning for the purposes of ventilation, while the intense blackness was relieved by the glaring lights in the caps of the miners.

The roof was supported by enormous pillars of coal, left standing as they worked around them, and the floors were everywhere intersected with tracks for the cars. Pursuing one of the gangways to its extremity, we found the men working at the actual labor of getting out the coal. Some were picking at it with heavy picks, others drilling for blasts, and others loading cars with the scattered masses that lay around. Satisfied with viewing everything we returned to our car, remounted, and again, under the guidance of the same black and yelling imp, who now urged his mule into a gallop, were drawn out into the sunshine.

There are a great many matters of interest connected with the coal business in the valley, which I have amused and instructed myself by collecting, but which, I fear, will prove too dull and statistical for a letter of this sort; but I will venture to add a few facts that will interest some readers, and which those who think them stupid may pass over.

One general fact of interest is, that the coal mines are seldom worked by their owners. They are opened at more or less expense, and after the vein is reached and proves good and plentiful, the owner lets the mine to a contractor, who agrees to work it, paying so much per ton to the owner for every ton he takes out. The value of coal lands may be estimated, when you learn that one gentleman receives fifty cents per ton for every ton taken out of his mine, and the yield is a great many thousand tons per annum. But this is an unusually large payment, the major portion of owners receiving from ten to thirty cents per ton.

The effect of the coal deposit is, of course, great on the value of land in the valley, and sales are not unfrequently made of large tracts, with a reservation of all rights of mining, as well as sales of the right of mining without selling the surface of the soil. Produce of all kinds commands the highest prices, even higher than in the city markets, and although the valley is one of the richest grain-growing regions in the State, as you might judge from its broad fields of gold and green, yet all that it produces is consumed here, and nearly as much again. It is probable that nearly the whole valley

is underlaid with coal strata, and in many places the upper vein, which is very thin and poor, crops out on the surface. The owner of the soil bores for coal in the usual way, driving a bar down into the rock, drilling deeper and deeper until the bar is entirely down, when a joint is added, and the bar is lifted and let drop in the hands of a man until joint after joint has been added. The dust is taken out of the hole from time to time, and the boring continued until the dust is either coal or conglomerate rock. If the latter be the result, the work is abandoned. Coal is never found below this formation. (I am particular in giving the minutiae of this process, for the benefit of those who are as ignorant as I was a few years ago.) Large tracts of land are owned by companies, such as the Pennsylvania Coal Company, which are not worked, nor intended to be for years, but which will in time yield millions of tons of coal to the market.

You cannot fail to notice the immense heaps of coal lying around the openings of mines, and by the sides of the railroads leading from them to the canals and elsewhere. These are the accumulation of winter work, when the canals are closed, and are very important to the proprietors as a means of preventing strikes among laborers. If there be a sudden demand for coal in the market, and an unusual anxiety to fulfil orders, the miners are ready to seize the opportunity for a strike, and demand higher wages. The result, however, is only to throw the proprietors back on their reserved heaps, from which, with a half-dozen men, they can load boats as fast as they come, and supply a demand for hundreds of thousands of tons. The check is, as you perceive, a very useful one, and costs nothing.

It may be interesting, before I finish my letter on coal, to mention the various routes by which the article reaches the market. The Wilkesbarre coal goes south by the North Branch Canal to the various Pennsylvania markets. The Pittston coal follows the same route to some extent, but the principal portion of it, as well as that taken out of the mines at Port Griffith, is brought over the Pennsylvania Coal Company's railroad to Hawley, where it takes the Delaware and Hudson Canal, and then via the Hudson River reaches New York. This railroad is a curious structure, being laid up and down the mountains, crossing sometimes by high trestle-work over the tops of lofty trees, carrying nothing but coal. The propelling power consists of stationary engines, which draw the cars up inclined planes to high points, whence they go down long grades, sometimes for miles, by their own impetus, and when they reach the lowest part of the grades are drawn up by other engines and again started down hill. By this expensive route the price in the market is kept up; and Carbondale, using the same sort of conveyance to Honesdale, and thence via Delaware and Hudson Canal and Hudson River to New York, is of course unable to supply the market at any cheaper rate.

THE GALENA LEAD TRADE.

We derive from the *Galena Jeffersonian* some interesting facts in regard to the lead trade of that section of the country for the year just closed:—

Amount of lead shipped from Galena from 13th March to 16 November,	
1852	281,896
Sent forward by railroad to lakes	13,895
Pigs	295,788
Amount shipped from Dubuque, Potosi, Buena Vista, and Cassville	95,794
Total shipments for 1852	391,582

When compared with the trade of 1851 there is a deficiency of 85,232 pigs. But this is accounted for by the early closing of navigation, the low water of nearly the whole season, and the bad state of the roads. Immediately preceding the close of navigation, the roads between Galena and the furnaces were nearly impassable, and very little lead was received. But the low water of the season, and high freights, was a still more serious interruption to business, and to this is to be added the fact, that navigation closed three weeks earlier than usual. In 1851 the last shipment was made December 3d, this year the last was sent forward November 16. A much larger amount has been, however, left on the levee at Galena. The *Jeffersonian* thinks that the lead shipments have now reached their minimum, and that hereafter greater supplies may be expected.

COAL—OUR BLACK DIAMONDS.

There was a time when a moral, brave, and industrious people could become a powerful nation independent of climate and natural resources of country, but this, we believe, cannot occur again. Men are indeed animated by the same passions that swayed mankind in the days of Pharaohs and Cæsars, but the nations of the earth are now controlled by outward circumstances of a totally different character, and these have but recently come into existence. The invention of the steam-engine and the application of its mighty power to manufacturing and commercial purposes, have made those nations the rulers of the world which have within themselves the greatest resources for maintaining the all-conquering agency of steam. Commerce is President of Nations, and Coal is her Secretary of State. With only a superficial area of 815,000 square miles of country, and a climate by no means favorable for agricultural productions, what would Great Britain be without her valuable 9,000 miles of coal fields? Without this, where would be her 10,000 woolen and cotton factories; where her 2,000 steamships and boats; and where her innumerable railroads and locomotives? Echo answers—where? The coal fields of the United States embrace an area of 133,569 square miles; those of Great Britain and Ireland only 11,859; those of Spain, 3,400; France, 1,710. With the exception of the North American Colonies, which has an area of 18,000 square miles, the coal fields of all the other nations, in comparisons with those of the United States, are mere patches on this globe. Two-thirds of the Commerce of the world is carried on by the United States and Great Britain, and as no nation can be commercially powerful now without steamships, and as no long sea voyages can be maintained without coal, the coal resources of our country form a well-grounded basis on which to predict the future greatness and power of our republic.

Hitherto our forests have afforded abundance of fuel for every want, and while we have used about 4,000,000 tons of coal per annum, Great Britain has been using for a number of years more than 32,000,000 of tons; France has been consuming 4,141,617 tons; Belgium, 4,960,077; and Prussia, 3,500,000 tons. The great amount of coal used by England indicates her commercial and manufacturing power, in comparison with the other nations of Europe, but such a comparison with the United States would not be correct, owing to our great resources of timber fuel. We have been informed on good authority, however, that since we commenced to build and run ocean steamers, a few years ago, the demand for coal has increased so rapidly that no less than 17,000,000 of tons, it is believed, will be consumed per annum within two years from the present date. Two lines of steamships—8 vessels—running between New York and Liverpool used no less than 32,200 tons last year themselves. We ought to be grateful that the resources of our country can meet every demand for coal, even to 100,000,000 tons per annum, for thousands of years to come. The time has now arrived when the quantity of coal used by a nation may be taken as an exponent of its power, its commercial greatness, ocean and inland.

The invention of railroads has extinguished the difficulties of transporting our coal to the remotest parts of our country where no such fuel exists, and such places otherwise uninhabitable, may be rendered cheerful and gladsome in the coldest nights of our dreary winters. In some places where silence and solitude now reign, the hopper, the spindle, the shuttle, and saw, will soon dance by the agency of coal to the music of steam.

Our country is not only favored by Providence with twelve times more coal area than any other country, but with every valuable variety of it, such as anthracite, cannel, and bituminous of every description. It is a singular fact, that although our anthracite coal fields do not form the two hundredth part of our coal area, nearly twice as much of this coal should be used as any of the bituminous kind. It is also a little singular that our bituminous coals are almost unknown and but little used in our Atlantic cities.

In Great Britain no person burns anthracite for domestic use; the reverse has been the rule in New York. Within the past year, however, the good qualities of some of our bituminous coals have attracted much attention, especially those that are called the "Cumberland coals." This coal is excellent for domestic purposes, making a cheerful and warm fire, very durable, and so excellent for raising steam, that it is preferred by some steamship companies to all others. Having looked over the report of W. R. Johnson on the coals of the United States, we find that he estimates them highly. The demand for them has increased to such an extent lately, that 700 tons per day have been brought, we have been told, from the mines by a single com-

pany in this city. We could do without the gold of California, for it does not add a single real comfort to the life of man; but we could not do without our coals. The Kooi noor diamond is valued at \$2,500,000—a sum which could purchase 500,000 tons of coal. If this diamond was dropped into the depths of the sea and lost forever, no one in the world would suffer for a single useful article the less; but if 500,000 tons of coal were prevented from coming to New York city this summer, 200,000 people would be reduced to a state of intense suffering during the next winter. Coals, then, are the real diamonds of our country.

MINNESOTA SALT REGION.

Probably there is not a richer salt region on the face of the earth than the one in Minnesota. That territory is generally supposed to be valuable for its agricultural resources alone; nothing, however, can be more erroneous. True, its natural agricultural wealth is probably second to none in the Mississippi valley, but its mineral wealth is not less extensive and valuable.

Among the latter its salt stands pre eminent. This region lies between forty-seven and forty-nine degrees north latitude, and ninety-seven and ninety-nine degrees west longitude. Its exact locality was ascertained and defined by an expedition sent out from Fort Snelling under Major Long in 1822-3—the same Major Long who, afterwards, was commander of the expedition across the Rocky Mountains to explore the Columbia River and Oregon territory, known as “Long’s Expedition.” A description of that salt region, together with its locality, will be found in the Topographical Department at Washington. Our first information of that salt region was from a soldier in the expedition. He says that they had been traveling for several days over a vast rolling plain, with no trees or water, the troops and horses were almost famishing with thirst, when they came suddenly upon the shore of a beautiful lake, about half a mile in diameter, sunk down deep in the plain, it resembling more a vast “sink hole.” From the height above the waters, a vast snow bank appeared to line its shore, but, upon examination, it proved to be an encrustation of salt as pure and white as snow. The waters of the lake, also, were also of the strongest brine. So strong was it, that one bathing in it upon coming out would be covered with the white crystallization of salt. If this salt region be as rich as it is supposed to be, a railroad projected into it would prove to be the best stock in the country. Here are mines of undeveloped wealth more extensive, more durable, and more important than all the gold regions beyond the rocky mountains. We are informed also, that at a very short distance below the surface the pure rock salt lies in strata like coal or lime rock. We hope the attention of the public and the government will be turned to the subject. There is a region lying in our immediate neighborhood almost unknown, containing more intrinsic wealth than any State in the Union, and which would yield an annual income probably equalling the entire revenues of the country.

MANUFACTURE OF GOLD PENS.

The gold for pens is rolled into thin strips, about the thirty-second part of an inch in thickness. In this state it is black on the surface, and looks like brass. The first operation is cutting it into stubbs—short pieces pointed and angular at one end, and cut square off at the other; this is done in a die: the stubbs are then run through a machine, and each point is indented for the reception of the real pen points. The next operation is pointing the stubbs. The substance used for points is rhodium, a hard brittle metal like steel, unoxidizable. It is to this metal we wish to direct particular attention.

There are various qualities of it, some worth twelve, twenty, thirty, and forty dollars per ounce, and even \$120 has been paid for a superior quality. It is found in the ores of platinum associated with iridium, osmium, and palladium. Iridium is used by some for the points of gold pens, but rhodium is the dearest and best. All of this metal used in the United States comes from the Peruvian or Russian mines, but we have been assured that there is plenty of it in California. It is also found there pure, associated with sands, and requiring no chemical manipulation for its separation, as in the platinum ores of the Ural. Our gold seekers in California should direct their attention to this metal, as it is far more valuable than gold. It is of a white glassy steel color, and in minute roundish particles like sand; the round globular particles are the

best for pen points; in fact, out of one ounce of this metal perhaps not one-seventieth of the granules can be used, the rest are rejected. A fine particle of rhodium is soldered on the indented point of each stub of gold. The solder is mostly composed of gold, for, unless it is gold, ink soon corrodes it, and the rhodium point soon drops off. This is the case with poor pens made by indifferent makers.

After the pen is pointed, it is rolled between rollers with indents in them to save the points, until the stub is drawn out to its proper length and correct thickness. The rolling also makes the gold elastic. Many suppose that gold pens can be re-pointed, but such is not the case, for the heat employed to solder on the point renders the gold as plastic as a piece of tin; the heat changes the relative position of the crystals of the metal—thrusts them out as it were—and the gold requires rolling or hammering afterwards to give it elasticity—that spring so requisite for pens. This is the reason why old pens cannot be re-pointed. Some makers do not hammer their pens after being rolled; they are never so good. After being rolled, they are cut to the proper form in a finish die, then stamped with the name of the maker, and afterwards turned up to the rounding quill form. After this the point is slit with a thin copper disc revolving at a great velocity; the great speed makes the soft metal disc cut the hard metal rhodium; the gold is slit with another machine; therefore, to make a slit in each pen, it has to undergo two operations. The point is next ground on a copper wheel revolving at a great velocity. This is a very delicate operation, and a good artist gets high wages. After this the pens are “stoned out,” that is, they are ground down on the inside and out by fine Water of Ayr stones, by hand, on a bench alongside of a tub of water; the stones are long, thin, roundish slips, and the pens have to be operated so as to make one part more thin than another, to give them the proper spring. They are then polished on swift revolving copper rollers, and afterwards finished with fine powder and soft chamois skin. Thus, to make a gold pen, it undergoes twelve operations. Inferior pens can be made with less labor, but they soon develop their true characteristics.

“LORD OF THE LOOM,”

This expression is often applied to manufacturers. We know not why. A manufacturer is no more a “lord” than a cotton planter. Both invest very large sums of money in their business—both are engaged in useful pursuits in our country. The manufacturer, after investing a quarter or half a million of dollars, and giving employment to several hundred persons, meets with varied success. In one year, when cotton is low and the demand for goods is brisk, he gets a handsome dividend—in some cases as high as 25 per cent. But after deducting the interest of his enormous investment, the wear of costly machinery, the decay of buildings, of dams, and other drawbacks, his real profits after all are not extraordinary. Indeed, we could wish that his profits might never be less than 25 per cent, for the sale of his goods is effected not only in the most distant parts of our own country, but in foreign lands, and his profits are, to a great extent, brought home to be expended in further valuable improvements, and to be finally scattered among our people—often getting into the pockets of those who commence life without pecuniary means.

But it is not every year that the manufacturer is enabled to make a dividend. When the raw material is high, and when the market is full of goods, he works hard, but is no better off at the end than in the beginning of the year. To test the manufacturer's profit we must take an average of ten years, and consider his losses, the wear of his machinery and buildings, as well as his actual cash expenses and income. By this rule we shall find that the average profits among the manufacturers of New England will not exceed six per cent, though there may be isolated cases where better success has attended the business, and others still that have resulted in bankruptcy.

Now let us look at the planter. He is, with few exceptions, an honorable, liberal-hearted man. But he does not work so industriously as the manufacturer. He sends his cotton to Europe, and receives good prices in return. We are very glad that it is so; when the planter gets good prices he can afford to pay liberally for Northern manufactures, and when the manufacturer does well he can afford to pay cash down and fair prices for cotton. It is for the interest of the country that both should prosper. But we never could see that the business of manufacturing was more “lordly” than that of planting cotton—and we suspect that those writers who apply the taunting term “lord of the loom” to manufacturers, do it rather thoughtlessly than from any well-grounded reason.—*Times*.

STATISTICS OF POPULATION, &c.

POPULATION OF BRITISH COLONIES IN NORTH AMERICA IN 1755.

A correspondent of the *Boston Transcript* finds in the *London Magazine* for May, 1755, the following interesting statements. It is now a little less than one hundred years since this estimate was made. The number of inhabitants at that time was estimated at about one million; and the number, including the descendants and the amount arising from immigration, now spread over these regions and the adjoining wilderness, is about twenty-five millions, exclusive of the colored, most of whom are within the limits of the United States.

Number of the British subjects, men, women and children, in the colonies in North America, taken from militia rolls, poll taxes, bills of mortality, returns from governors, and other authentic authorities:—

Colonies.	Inhab'ts.	Colonies.	Inhab'ts.
Halifax & Lunenburg, in N. Scotia	5,000	Pennsylvania.....	250,000
New Hampshire	80,000	Maryland.....	85,000
Massachusetts Bay	220,000	Virginia.....	85,000
Rhode Island and Providence..	35,000	North Carolina	45,000
Connecticut	100,000	South Carolina	80,000
New York	100,000	Georgia.....	6,000
The Jerseys.....	60,000		
Total number.....			1,051,000

Exclusive of military forces in the pay of the government, and negroes.

Number of the French inhabitants in North America, exclusive of regulars, troops, and negroes:—

Colonies.	Inhabitants.
Canada.....	45,000
Louisiana	7,000
Total	52,000

So that the English are more than in the proportion of 20 to 1; but, (in the words of a memorial quoted by the author of "The State of the British and French Colonies in North America,") "Union, situation, proper management of the Indians, superior knowledge of the country, and constant application to a purpose, will more than balance divided numbers, and will easily break a rope of sand."

On the supposition that Canada contained 50,000 inhabitants in 1753, one hundred years ago, the increase has been nearly forty-fold, in order that the present number be nearly two millions. This increase is nearly twice as great as that of the white population of the United States, which does not now probably much exceed twenty-two millions, having increased in the meantime only about twenty times. This increase is of two kinds—arising from excess of births over deaths, and from immigration. By the first, the doubling can hardly have taken place in less than thirty years; the rest of the increase has arisen from immigration from other countries. We know that during the whole period immigrants have been coming into the States and into the Canadas, at some times in greater proportions than at others.

On the supposition of a duplication in thirty years by births or natural increase, which we think nearly the same in the United States and in the Canadas, we present in the following table an estimate of the numbers at each of the three epochs of thirty years, to which is added an increase of three-eighths for the last ten years:—

WHITE POPULATION.

Epochs.	Canada.	United States.
1763	50,000	1,000,000
1783	100,000	2,000,000
1813	200,000	4,000,000
1843	400,000	8,000,000
....	150,000	3,000,500
1853	550,000	11,000,000

Thus, nearly three-fourths of the present white population of Canada, East and West, and one-half of that of the United States, have arisen from immigration during the last one hundred years.

IMMIGRATION AT THE PORT OF NEW YORK FOR THE YEAR 1853.

We are indebted to Mr. H. De Burgh, of the office of the Commissioners of Emigration, for the following statement (a duplicate of the official copy forwarded to the Legislature,) of the immigration at New York, during the year just closed. Compared with it is the immigration of former years:—

	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
January.....	13,154	14,769	11,592	4,901
February.....	3,206	8,170	5,842	11,958
March.....	5,569	16,055	21,726	9,685
April.....	14,627	27,779	28,193	23,283
May.....	42,846	33,847	33,372	30,212
June.....	11,762	34,402	49,225	45,578
July.....	34,446	27,612	29,403	22,898
August.....	18,092	30,251	34,513	33,682
September.....	21,054	33,586	36,777	30,288
October.....	23,260	21,497	17,765	23,201
November.....	17,947	29,565	16,573	31,485
December.....	6,833	12,117	16,511	17,824
	<u>212,796</u>	<u>289,255</u>	<u>300,992</u>	<u>284,945</u>

In the following table, the immigrants arrived during the year are classified according to nationality:—

Irish	113,164	Germans	119,644
English.....	27,126	Scotch.....	6,456
Welsh.....	1,182	French.....	7,470
Spanish.....	659	Swiss.....	4,604
Dutch.....	1,085	Norwegians.....	377
Swedes.....	1,630	Danes.....	94
Italians.....	553	Portuguese.....	237
West Indies.....	34	All others.....	630
Total.....			<u>284,945</u>

GROWTH OF CITIES IN THE UNITED STATES.

The following table, says the *Baltimore American*, compiled from the returns of the late census, shows how very extraordinary is the growth of the civic population in this country:—

	1820.	1853.	Growth.
New York.....	123,706	700,000	500 per ct.
Philadelphia.....	108,115	500,000	400 "
Baltimore.....	62,738	200,000	225 "
Cincinnati.....	9,644	170,000	1600 "
St. Louis.....	4,598	82,000	1800 "
Cleveland.....	606	25,000	800 "
New Orleans.....	27,176	120,000	350 "

This comparison is not so favorable for Baltimore as would be one between 1840 and 1853, the increase of our population in that time having been greatly larger than in the period from 1820 to 1840. The entire civic population in the United States is 3,754,470, and the rural 19,436,596, the proportion of the civic to the rural being 17 per cent. The three States of Pennsylvania, New York, and Ohio contain about half the civic population of the United States, while they contain less than one-third of the whole people. In these States the population is as follows:—

	Civic.	Rural.	Proportion.
New York	1,070,759	1,026,935	50 p. ct. civic.
Pennsylvania.....	577,905	1,723,881	25 “
Ohio	270,500	1,720,908	14 “

RAILROAD, CANAL, AND STEAMBOAT STATISTICS.

THE RHYME OF THE DEPOT.

Vanity of vanities,
Climax of vexation,
Waiting for the cars
At a railroad station;
Thinking every moment
That the train will go,
Worrying out an hour
In a small depot!

Bultry summer day,
Hot Sahara weather,
Motley crowd of people
Huddled up together—
Crowded in a room
Filled with “loafers” smoking,
Wits and politicians
Arguing and joking.

Every class of people
In this mighty nation,
Fully represented
In the railroad station—
Restless, whistling Yankee,
With impatient tread,
Wishes that the cars
Would just “go ahead.”

Funny little Frenchman,
With ejaculations,
Shows his great impatience
In gesticulations;
Rowdy at the glass,
With a fierce moustache,
Obviously thinks
That he cuts a “dash.”

Corpulent old fellow,
Looking very wise,
With a lazy yawn
Closes up his eyes;
Waiting for the cars,
It is nowise odd
That he take a train
To the land of Nod!

Philosophic stranger
Says the cars are late,
But we all must learn
“To labor and to wait;”
Suddenly is heard
An unearthly scream,
’Tis the engineer
Letting off the steam!

Universal rush
For the narrow door—
Half-a-dozen sprawling
On the muddy floor;
One would think the people
Crowded in so fast,
Thought that very moment
Was to be their last.

Every one impatient,
Everybody grumbling,
Train at length comes in
With tremendous rumbling;
Like a band of furies
From the realms below,
Wildly rush the inmates
Of the small depot.

Elbowed, jammed, and crowded,
We may thank our stars
If we find a seat
In the railroad cars;
Chuckling with delight,
With congratulation,
That we have escaped
From that railroad station.

Worst of little miseries
That in life beset us,
Greatest of the troubles
That forever fret us—
Waiting one long hour
For the cars to go,
Elbowed, jammed, and crowded
In a small depot!

SIR ISAAC NEWTON AND VOLTAIRE ON RAILWAY TRAVELING.

Sir Isaac Newton wrote a work upon the Prophet Daniel, and another upon the Book of Revelation, in one of which he said, that in order to fulfill certain prophecies before a certain date was terminated—namely, 1,260 years, there would be a mode of traveling of which the men of this time had no conception; nay, that the knowledge of men would be so increased, that they would be able to travel at the rate of fifty miles an hour. Voltaire, who did not believe in the inspiration of the Scriptures, got hold of this, and said: “Now, look at that mighty mind of Newton, who discovered gravity, and told such marvels for us all to admire! When he became an old man,

and got into his dotage, he began to study that book called the Bible, and it seems that, in order to credit its fabulous nonsense, we must believe that the knowledge of mankind will be so increased, that we shall be able to travel at the rate of fifty miles an hour. The poor dotard!" exclaimed the philosophic infidel Voltaire, in the self-complacency of his pity. But who is the dotard now!—*Rev. J. Craig.*

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS AT BUFFALO BY CANAL.

STATEMENT OF PROPERTY FIRST CLEARED AT THE COLLECTOR'S OFFICE, AT BUFFALO, ON THE ERIE CANAL, DURING THE YEAR 1853, SHOWING THE QUANTITY AND AVERAGE VALUE OF EACH ARTICLE, AND ALSO THE WHOLE AMOUNT OF TOLLS RECEIVED AT THAT OFFICE ON BOATS, PASSENGERS, AND EACH ARTICLE OF PROPERTY, DURING THE SAME PERIOD.

Description.	THE FOREST.		Quantity.	Value.
Fur and peltry.....	lbs.	230,623		\$230,623
<i>Product of Wood.</i>				
Boards and scantling.....	ft.	61,885,663		1,237,713
Shingles.....	M.	1,983		5,453
Timber.....	100 c. ft.	41,688		6,253
Staves.....	lbs.	76,066,068		228,199
Ashes, pot and pearl.....	bbls.	13,216		370,148
Total.....	tons	145,017		\$2,078,389
AGRICULTURE.				
<i>Product of Animals.</i>				
Pork.....	bbls.	86,085		\$1,337,360
Beef.....		49,346		468,788
Bacon.....	lbs.	15,474,367		1,392,693
Cheese.....		2,055,737		305,573
Butter.....		739,192		113,271
Lard, tallow, and lard oil.....		8,759,456		875,949
Wool.....	lbs.	4,282,356		1,704,942
Hides.....		978,211		88,039
Total.....	tons	38,051		\$6,231,613
<i>Vegetable Food.</i>				
Flour.....	bbls.	658,364		\$3,621,003
Wheat.....	bush.	4,958,818		5,950,581
Rye.....		59,727		53,754
Corn.....		3,118,691		1,933,588
Corn meal.....	bbls.	2,378		8,323
Barley.....	bush.	247,233		160,701
Oats.....		1,163,599		465,440
Bran and ship stuffs.....	lbs.	645,651		6,457
Peas and beans.....	bush.	13,007		16,259
Potatoes.....		128		77
Dried fruit.....	lbs.	33,020		11,622
Total.....	tons	334,484		\$12,227,800
<i>All other Agricultural Produce.</i>				
Unmanufactured tobacco.....	lbs.	3,391,133		\$169,557
Hemp.....		676,317		47,342
Clover and grass seed.....		1,543,509		108,045
Flax seed.....		1,274,811		25,496
Hops.....		1,366		549
Total.....	tons	375,930		\$18,810,403

MANUFACTURES.

Domestic spirits.....	galls.	1,827,711	\$438,651
Oil meal and cake.....	lbs.	2,192,806	21,928
Leather.....		678,481	217,114
Furniture.....		382,535	39,905
Bar and pig lead.....		52,998	4,240
Pig iron.....		321,920	6,488
Bloom and bar iron.....		281,644	9,260
Castings and iron ware.....		111,482	4,459
Domestic salt.....		109,680	877
Total	tons	8,417	\$742,878

MERCHANDISE.

Sugar.....	lbs.	27,552	\$1,929
Molasses		9,082	818
Coffee.....		2,854	283
Nails, spikes, and horse shoes.....		37,420	1,874
Iron and steel.....		290,515	2,380
Railroad iron.....		695,954	29,879
Flint enamel, crockery, and glass ware.....		422,236	29,550
All other merchandise.....		1,299,292	91,150
Total	tons	1,393	\$166,382

OTHER ARTICLES.

Live cattle, hogs, and sheep.....	lbs.	6,880	340
Stone, lime, and clay.....		4,556,761	9,118
Gypsum.....		550	6
Mineral coal.....		20,545,681	51,864
Copper ore.....		1,156,868	300,785
Sundries.....		9,056,076	492,804
Total	tons	18,061	\$854,440

Total tons.....	548,818	Tot. value..	\$22,652,408
Total tolls.....			\$695,364 71

STATEMENT OF PROPERTY LEFT AT BUFFALO, GOING TO WESTERN STATES AND CANADA, ON THE ERIE CANAL, OR WHICH WAS LEFT BETWEEN THAT PLACE AND THE COLLECTOR'S OFFICE NEXT IN ORDER ON THE CANAL; SHOWING THE QUANTITY AND AVERAGE VALUE OF EACH ARTICLE DURING THE YEAR 1858:—

THE FOREST.

Description		Quantity.	Value.
Fur and peltry.....	lbs.	1,206	\$1,200
<i>Produce of Wood.</i>			
Boards and scantling	ft.	3,658,715	73,174
Shingles	M.	287	789
Timber.....	100 c. ft.	1,151,356	172,708
Staves	lbs.	40,186	121
Wood.....	cords	34,517	86,293
Total.....	tons	125,880	\$384,286

AGRICULTURE.

Product of Animals.

Pork.....	bbls.	3,818	61,080
Beef		6	57
Bacon.....	lbs.	955	80
Cheese		1,601	1,250
Lard, tallow, and lard oil		12,586	1,256
Wool.....		34,047	13,618
Hides.....		1,092,120	218,242
Total.....	tons	1,182	\$294,513

Vegetable Food.

Flour.....	bbls.	43,751	\$240,681
Rye.....	bush.	345	811
Corn.....		11,281	6,994
Corn meal.....	bbls.	8,000	28,000
Barley.....	bush.	2,773	1,802
Oats.....		45	18
Bran and ship stuffs.....	lbs.	395,517	3,059
Peas and beans.....	bush.	5,044	6,305
Potatoes.....		37,984	22,795
Dried fruit.....	lbs.	214,373	30,015
Total.....	tons	7,595	\$340,819

All other Agricultural Products.

Cotton.....	lbs.	505	51
Unmanufactured tobacco.....		4,639	230
Flaxseed.....		1,380	28
Hops.....		128,429	51,371
Total.....	tons	8,844	\$687,014

MANUFACTURES.

Domestic spirits.....	galla.	10,990	2,638
Oil meal and cake.....	lbs.	21,911	219
Leather.....		1,549,044	495,694
Furniture.....		3,657,133	438,850
Bar and pig lead.....		21,638	1,731
Pig iron.....		13,763,460	275,269
Bloom and bar iron.....		1,699,622	67,985
Castings and iron ware.....		27,697,745	1,107,917
Domestic cottons.....		1,031,459	371,326
Domestic salt.....		59,205,314	473,683
Foreign salt.....		122,160	3,236,499
Total.....	tons	54,424	\$3,236,499

MERCHANDISE.

Sugar.....	lbs.	22,356,618	1,567,963
Molasses.....		15,480,124	541,800
Coffee.....		9,827,942	1,179,353
Nails, spikes, &c.....		7,206,847	360,353
Iron and steel.....		18,667,738	1,806,881
Railroad iron.....		144,985,894	4,349,570
Crockery and glass ware.....		12,313,359	861,936
All other merchandise.....		121,929,535	48,771,822
Total.....	tons	176,383	\$58,936,678

OTHER ARTICLES.

Live cattle, hogs, and sheep.....	lbs.	12,800	615
Stone, lime, and clay.....		83,373,256	166,740
Gypsum.....		471,106	4,711
Mineral coal.....		46,026,510	116,567
Sundries.....		16,128,363	1,417,625
Other articles.....	tons	73,305	\$1,417,625
Total.....	tons	438,786	\$64,612,102

COLLECTOR'S OFFICE, BUFFALO, }
December 29, 1853. }

I certify the above statement to be correct.

BURTON SLOCUM, Collector.

CANAL TRADE OF ROCHESTER IN 1853.

The Rochester papers contain the official statement of the canal business of that port during the season of 1853, compared with the previous season, (1852.) The total value of property first cleared at that port in 1853 was \$4,780,430, against \$4,303,762 in 1852. Increase in favor of '53, \$476,668.

The tolls collected in 1853 amounted to \$164,232, against \$159,297 in 1852. Increase in favor of '53, \$4,935.

Of the merchandise left at Rochester during the same period in 1853, it amounted in value to \$5,128,059, against \$5,237,066 in 1852—or a decrease in '53 of \$109,007. The amount in tons in 1853 was 161,375, against 164,738 in 1852.

The following are among the principal articles first cleared at that port during the two seasons:—

Articles.	1853.	1852.
	Quantity.	Quantity.
Boards and scantling	1,000 ft.	2,203,698
Timber	100 c. ft.	4,094
Staves	lbs.	6,262,414
Pork	bbls.	724
Beef		1,162
Bacon	lbs.	116,646
Cheese		104,688
Butter		31,644
Oil		62,016
Wool		588,347
Hides		80,256
Flour	bbls.	493,575
Wheat	bush.	116,472
Rye		1,002
Corn		11,801
Corn meal	bbls.	116
Barley	bush.	11,172
Oats		6,548
Bran and ship stuffs	lbs.	12,985,784
Peas and beans	bush.	2,889
Potatoes		48,849
Domestic spirits	galls.	163,772
Oil meal and cake	lbs.	243,216
Leather		67,601
Furniture		277,741
Bar and pig lead		6,685
Pig iron		1,833,069
Bloom and bar iron		24,064
Castings and iron ware		2,186,463
Railroad iron		253,566
Flint, enamel, crockery, and glass ware		94,398
All other merchandise		3,674,169
Stone, lime, and clay		495,621
Mineral coal		1,717,572
Sundries		8,284,805
		5,876,482
		2,226
		8,231,606
		466
		2,272
		32,403
		98,049
		87,774
		16,740
		492,194
		35,308
		533,680
		86,028
		284
		64,742
		10
		30,150
		13,076
		15,081,688
		5,576
		21,211
		336,982
		263,221
		33,866
		358,638
		2,368,392
		400
		1,964,875
		1,184,940
		39,148
		6,095,638
		1,468,126
		2,907,718
		3,945,087

PROGRESS OF RAILROADS IN INDIANA.

Indiana has made rapid progress in the construction of railways, and in this particular, as also in point of prosperity, she stands next to the great State of Ohio. The agricultural and commercial growth of Indiana is equalled only by that persevering and enterprising spirit which has enabled her citizens to construct within a few years twelve hundred miles of iron tracks. The following is a list of the several roads:—

Name of Corporation.	Miles.	Name of Corporation.	Miles.
Columbus and Shelbyville.....	21	New Albany and Salem.....	287
Evansville and Crawfordsville	34	Newcastle and Richmond.....	13
Indiana Central.....	72	Northern Indiana.....	83
Indianapolis and Bellefontaine.....	84	Ohio and Mississippi.....	32
Indianapolis and Cincinnati.....	94	Peru and Indianapolis.....	72
Jeffersonville.....	107	Shelbyville and Knightstown.....	27
Lafayette and Indianapolis.....	64	Shelbyville Lateral.....	16
Madison and Indianapolis.....	84	Shelbyville and Rushville.....	20
Martinsville.....	27	Terre Haute and Richmond.....	73

BOSTON AND WORCESTER RAILROAD.

The twenty-fourth annual report of the Boston and Worcester Railroad gives evidence of the most satisfactory success in all its operations. The gross receipts have been \$128,400 40 over those of the previous year, while the expenses of working the road have exceeded those of the last year by only \$45,787 83, and most of this excess is ascribed to the enhanced price of labor and materials, and to the increased amount of business.

The total income of the road for the year ending Nov. 30, 1883, from all sources, was	\$887,219 87
Total working expenses.....	455,528 01
Net income.....	\$431,691 86
To which is charged the balance of interest accounts... ..	\$18,402 03
Two dividends of $3\frac{1}{4}$ per cent each	815,000 00
	<u>\$338,402 03</u>
Balance to reserved income	\$98,289 83
Reserved income reported last year.....	\$100,626 76
	<u>\$198,916 59</u>
From which is deducted and carried to depreciation account, for engines and cars.....	60,075 59
Leaving a sum total of income reserved of.....	<u>\$138,841 59</u>

The report states that proposals have been made, jointly with the Western Railroad Corporation, to aid the company chartered to construct a road from Barre to Brookfield, which had been accepted; the two corporations agreeing to yield the Barre and Brookfield road, out of the gross receipts of joint business, sufficient to guaranty seven per cent interest upon \$100,000 of that stock, to be borne equally by the Boston and Worcester and Western Railroad Corporations.

RULES FOR RAILWAY TRAVELERS.

The *Scientific American* is responsible for the following hints to travelers. The last paragraph, relating to the use of placards for the purpose of informing travelers of the stopping places, we concur in very heartily. The present system in that respect is very inefficient.

Never attempt to get out of a railway carriage while it is moving.

Never attempt to get in a railway carriage when it is in motion, no matter how slow the motion may seem to be.

Never sit in any unusual place or posture.

Never get out at the wrong side of a railway carriage.

Never pass from one side of the railway to the other, except when it is indispensably necessary to do so, and then not without the utmost precaution.

Express trains are attended with more danger than ordinary trains. Those who desire security, should use them only when great speed is required.

Special trains, excursion trains, and all other exceptional trains on railways are to be avoided, being more unsafe than the ordinary and regular trains.

If the train in which you travel meet with an accident, by which it is stopped at a

part of the line or at a time where such stoppage is not regular, it is more advisable to quit the carriage than to stay in it.

Beware of yielding to the sudden impulse to spring from the carriage to recover your hat which has blown off, or a parcel dropped.

When you start on your journey, select, if you can, a carriage at or as near as possible to the center of the train.

Do not attempt to hand any article into a train in motion.

When you can choose your time, travel by day rather than by night; and, if not urgently pressed, do not travel in foggy weather.

There is one reform that we should like to see adopted on all our railways—that is, to have a board hung vertically in the inside, at the end of each carriage, with the names of all the stopping places painted on it in rotation, and all these covered with a slide which would open, and show the name of each place before arriving at it. The conductor calls out the name of each stopping place as he arrives at it, but if the plan was adopted which we propose, he would just have to draw the slide after leaving one place to show the name of the next stopping place. This would allow passengers to prepare for their departure, would save calling out, and would afford a quiet security to passengers of not mistaking their stopping places.

SALES OF BALTIMORE AND OHIO RAILROAD STOCK IN 1853.

The following table, showing the number of shares of Baltimore and Ohio Railroad stock bought and sold at the Baltimore Board in each month of the year 1853, is derived from the *Price Current* of that city:—

	No. Shares.	Cash.	Time.	Avg. rates.	Total sales.
January	3,263	1,483	1,780	93½	\$305,090
February	6,430	2,319	4,111	90½	581,915
March	15,124	3,757	1,367	88	1,255,292
April	13,836	4,353	9,483	82½	1,141,470
May	5,362	2,442	2,920	79½	426,279
June	11,388	3,918	7,470	75	854,100
July	5,598	2,689	2,909	71½	400,257
August	4,298	1,148	3,150	67	287,966
September	12,665	1,876	10,795	62	785,230
October	29,777	5,308	24,469	55*	1,637,735
November	31,873	4,973	26,900	52½	1,673,332
December	25,075	4,695	20,380	56	1,404,200
	164,689	88,955	125,784		\$10,752,866

NOTE.—On the 21st of October the stock had reached the low figure of 42½, at which price a large amount was sold—the average price, however, for the month was 55.

SAILING OF MAIL STEAMERS FOR EUROPE IN 1854.

The Postmaster-General has issued a schedule of the days of sailing of our mail steamers to Europe during the ensuing year. Saturday is the day of departure from the United States, Wednesday from England and France, and Friday from Bremen. The steamers will leave on the Saturdays occurring on the 7th, 14th, 21st and 28th of January; 4th, 11th, 18th and 25th of February; 4th, 11th, 18th and 25th of March; 1st, 8th, 15th, 22d and 29th of April; 6th, 13th, 20th and 27th of May; 3d, 10th, 17th and 24th of June; 1st, 8th, 15th, 22d and 29th of July; 5th, 12th, 19th and 26th of August; 2d, 9th, 16th, 23d and 30th of September; 7th, 14th, 21st and 28th of October; 4th, 11th, 18th and 25th of November; 2d, 9th and 23d of December.

From Liverpool they will sail on the Wednesdays occurring on the 11th and 25th of January, 8th and 22d of February, 8th and 22d of March, 5th and 19th of April, 3d, 17th, and 31st of May, 14th and 28th of June, 12th and 26th of July, 9th and 23d of August, 6th and 20th of September, 4th and 18th of October, 1st, 15th and 29th of November, and 13th and 27th December.

From Southampton they leave on the Wednesdays falling on the 18th January, 15th February, 1st, 15th, and 29th March, 12th and 26th April, 10th and 24th May, 7th and 21st June, 5th and 19th July, 2d, 16th and 30th August, 18th and 27th Septem-

ber, 11th and 25th October, 8th and 22d November, 6th and 20th December, and 3d January.

From Havre, the days of sailing are the Wednesdays falling on the 18th January, 15th February, 15th March, 12th April, 10th May, 7th June, 5th July, 2d and 30th August, 27th September, 25th October, 22d November, and 20th December.

From Bremen, the steamers take their departure on the Fridays falling on the 24th February, 24th March, 21st April, 19th May, 16th June, 14th July, 11th August, 8th September, 6th October, 3d November, 1st and 29th December.

The postal regulations will remain the same as at present, with regard to rates, save in the event of new international treaties.

HUDSON RIVER NAVIGATION.

The close of the Hudson River for 1853 is, we believe, without a precedent. Although the river remained open to the 24th of December in the year 1847, to the 27th in 1849, and to the 22d in 1852, no season during the past ten years shows so long a period of navigation as the one just closed. Navigation commenced on the 21st of March—nine months, or 275 days! The following figures show the duration of navigation for the last ten years:—

	Days.		Days.		Days.
1844.....	74	1848.....	82	1851.....	106
1845.....	100	1849.....	73	1852.....	91
1846.....	112	1850.....	69	1853.....	275
1847.....	89				

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

REPORT OF THE NEW YORK COTTON MARKET,

FOR THE MONTH ENDING JANUARY 14, 1854.

The month commenced with a good demand from both shippers and spinners, the latter purchasing freely of the better grades, which, from their scarcity, commanded full prices. The lower qualities, in sympathy with the Liverpool market, have not been in request; and to such an extent have they been neglected, that they are now, and have been, much the cheapest cotton. The sales during the week ending December 24, 1853, were 12,909 bales, viz: export, 2,909; home use, 4,342; speculation, 1,389; in transitu, 4,269 bales; and the quotations, as declared by the New York Cotton Brokers' Association, were:

	Upland.	Florida.	Mobile.	N. O. & Texas.
Ordinary.....	8	8	8½	8½
Middling.....	10½	10½	10½	10½
Middling fair.....	11	11½	11½	12
Fair.....	11½	11½	12½	12½

During the second week of the month under review the transactions were more limited, owing to the annual holidays, and an advance in freights, caused by previous large purchases of cotton in transitu and for re-shipment from the South. The market being more freely supplied, a decline took place of ¼ c. per pound on nearly all grades. Our market closed for the week extremely dull, with sales of 8,158 bales, viz: export, 1,951; home use, 2,413; speculation, 684; in transitu, 3,180 bales; at the following quotations, declared December 31, 1853:—

	Upland.	Florida.	Mobile.	N. O. & Texas.
Ordinary.....	8	8	8½	8½
Middling.....	10½	10½	10½	10½
Middling fair.....	10½	11	11½	11½
Fair.....	11½	11½	12	12½

Prices for the first week of the year were in favor of purchasers, with a much better stock to select from. Holders generally were free sellers, and the upward tendency in freights alone prevented larger transactions. Our market closed dull, with sales for the week of 8,400 bales, viz: export, 4,911; home use, 2,717; speculation, 772 bales; at the quotations annexed, which are those given by the Board of Brokers, January 9, 1854:—

	Upland.	Florida.	Mobile.	N. O. & Texas.
Ordinary.....	7½	7½	8	8
Middling	9½	9½	10½	10½
Middling fair.....	10½	10½	11½	11½
Fair.....	11½	11½	11½	12½

The week following considerable irregularity still existed. Some few sales of cotton in course of shipment made, below the quotations. Towards the close of the week prices became steadier; shippers, and our own spinners, taking to the extent of 10,000 bales, relieved the market of lots pressing for sale. Much of the cottons sold the last three weeks have been by ship samples, and it is such cases that have tended to cause irregularity in prices, which are alike injurious to both shipper and receiver—the latter properly storing his cotton, instead of making storehouses of our otherwise crowded docks. The sales for the week ending January 16, 1854, were 11,874 bales, viz: export, 5,346; home use, 4,159; speculation, 1,777; in transitu, 592 bales; at the following prices:—

	Upland.	Florida.	Mobile.	N. O. & Texas.
Ordinary.....	7½	7½	8	8½
Middling.....	9½	9½	10½	10½
Middling fair.....	10½	10½	11½	11½
Fair	11	11½	11½	12½

CROP AND RECEIPTS.

Crop opinions vary less this season than formerly; the general expression settles upon a crop of 3,000,000 bales as the maximum; yet there are a few who, basing their views upon the present large deficiency, as compared with last year, believe in a crop of 2,800,000 bales; and, on the other hand, there are those who think that the present decrease is owing entirely to the late picking season, together with the low state of the Southern rivers and the ability of the planters to hold over, and that a crop approaching that of last year has been gathered and will be sent forward to market as soon as a demand for it exists.

During the early picking season a general belief existed that an undue proportion of the crop would consist of the lower grades, attributable to the heavy rains which occurred in the summer months, but facts, proven by the receipts at the seaboard up to this time, dispel this fear, for the cotton thus far received consists of but little of the inferior and lower grades. Prepared for the *Merchants' Magazine* by

UHLHORN & FREDRICKSON, Brokers, 148 Pearl street.

BOSTON AND NEW YORK COMPARED.

The following remarks are from a speech of the Hon. THOMAS G. CARY, on the use of the credit of the State for the Hoosac Tunnel, in the Senate of Massachusetts. Mr. Cary was for many years engaged in mercantile pursuits in Boston and New York, and at one time connected in business with the late THOMAS H. PERKINS. More recently he has been largely interested in manufactures. But for his comparison of the two commercial cities of the country:—

New York, from her position, has become commercially a great central point for the Union, and for a large portion of our foreign trade. Boston is, geographically, only a

central point in Commerce for the larger part of New England. New York is, of course, a great place for agencies. Besides the business which may be called her own, and which would make her a large city at any rate, she is employed in transacting the business of other people; and this makes her the most populous city of the Union. The business of Boston is necessarily original in its character, growing out of the industry and enterprise of the people of Massachusetts and of those who move in from neighboring States. She is a principal, employing, to no small extent, the agency that I speak of in New York, and giving directions what shall or shall not be done there.

A voyage is planned quietly in Boston. The ship is fitted for sea without noise or bustle, and sails, perhaps, for the other side of the globe. At the end of ten or twelve months she returns to New York, richly laden, very likely with teas or silks, and then the bustle begins. The cargo is to be held or sold, as orders may be given from Boston. The proceeds are to be disposed of in conformity to orders from here. The profits belong here and are remitted here, and the ship comes round here to be dismantled and quietly refitted for another voyage. The basis of the whole proceeding is very likely to be intelligence which the merchant of Boston has acquired by personal experience in the distant region to which the vessel is destined.

I speak from personal knowledge in this, having resided for ten years in New York, representing there some of the most enterprising and successful merchants of Boston, until I was as familiarly known among directors of banks and insurance offices as I am here; and it was within my own observation that Boston Capital was, as it still is, at the bottom of much of the stir that is seen there. When I have gone into Wall street and inquired what was going on, the question has been put to me in reply—"Who should know, if you do not? You seem to be directing an important part of what is going on."

I beg to be understood as speaking with entire respect of New York. She has, as I have intimated, business of her own, growing out of the sagacity and enterprise of her merchants, sufficient to make her great; but the peculiar activity and a great portion of the increase in population visible there, arises in the way that I have described. It seems to me idle to compare Boston with New York by increase of numbers, while they differ so widely in the particulars mentioned. Boston has long been growing rapidly, and continues to do so; fast enough, I should think, to satisfy her reasonable wishes. It does not seem to me desirable that her population should be swelled to a vast multitude, not easily controlled by wholesome regulations, perhaps, under institutions like ours, if the increase is to come from mere agencies, like that of a considerable proportion of that in New York. Boston had but 18,000 inhabitants in my childhood. I have seen her population doubled three times over, and it is now going on to be doubled a fourth time. She has become large enough to possess the characteristics of a great city, and since that is so, I see no reason for concern. It certainly was desirable that she should become so large that no one need be troubled with the impression that each person knew everybody's business. But now she has attained that degree of magnitude. No great performer of any description, no eminent lecturer, no traveler worthy of distinction, would come to the United States without including Boston in his range of visits to the great cities of the Union. If a person desires to fill a large space in the public eye, by living for show, he may be gratified here. If he wishes for privacy, he may live as retired as if he were in any other city of the United States, or in the woods of Berkshire. Why, then, should we be concerned at the growth of other places, if we are prosperous? It is said that only three hundred houses were built in Boston the last year. I do not know the truth of this, but what then? If we could have a return of all the houses that were built in the environs the last year, for people who transact their business in Boston, and of new warehouses in the city, we should find a very different account. The truth is that the stores are encroaching annually on the dwelling-houses, and people are in a manner driven for residence into the country, where the railroads furnish great facilities of access. Street after street is given to business for warehouses, till at last the encroachment has come within view from this house. The Masonic Temple is taken for business, and all the inhabitants of Temple Place, opposite here, may consider that they have received notice to remove. But if proof be wanted of our prosperity, let any one look at our wharves, and (beside the old places for ship building,) at the ship yards on East Boston and Chelsea, where a fleet of clipper ships, the admiration of the commercial world, has been launched, within three years, from places that were milk farms but recently, to be sent on such voyages as I have described.

DEATH OF A YOUNG BOSTON MERCHANT.

The *Boston Transcript* of January 9th, 1864, records the death of one of the most intelligent, active and enterprising merchants of that city.

Mr. William N. Fairbanks, partner of a well known firm in Milk street, died on Saturday evening, January 7th, 1864, at his residence on Mount Pleasant, Roxbury. The deceased had an extensive circle of friends, who will bear witness to the estimable qualities of his character, the zeal and devotion with which he engaged in all enterprises which his judgment approved, and the sterling and sturdy virtues which crowned his career, and gave him commanding influence among his associates. Mr. Fairbanks was connected with the government of the Mercantile Library Association for many years, and held the office of President of the institution in 1842. The success which attended the first course of public lectures before the Association, resulted from his efforts, more than those of any other member. His elastic and persistent energy was applied to the interests of the institution, at a period when his services were invaluable.

For many months it has been evident that his strength was failing, and consumption, that scourge of New England, had seized him for its victim. His last days have been marked with calm resignation and cheerful confidence in the events of Providence. During the progress of his disease, his mind retained its native vigor; and when his strength failed, it was surprising to witness how far his strong intellectual faculties survived the decay of his vital powers. Thus has passed away, at an early age, a most useful and honorable man,—one whose influence and example are worthy of emulation, whose death will be mourned by young friends in every quarter of the civilized world; and whose memory will long be cherished by the large number of those who have experienced his friendship, and witnessed how fully his manhood developed and matured the bright promises of his early years.

THE PAPIER MACHE OF COMMERCE.

We hear a great deal about *papier mache*, and if we visit book, jeweler, or fancy store, says the *North Western Gazette*, our eyes are attracted to beautiful portfolios, miniature writing desks, inkstands, &c., &c., shining in black and gorgeous with pearl and gold, and splendid in all the tints and hues of flowers and the rainbow. These beautiful articles, we are told, are made from *papier mache*, and after some research we find—*papier mache* is French for “chewed paper,” and we learn that it is very much used for all sorts of useful and ornamental purposes; for tea trays, writing desks, chess, work, and even center tables, and for furniture of all kinds, from a foot stool to a broad, wide and heavy French bedstead. We further ascertain that it is sometimes used for ornamental purposes—in architecture—and we are pointed to a church in the town of Bergen, Prussia, capable of holding one thousand persons, of which the relieves outside, and the statues within—the roof, the ceiling, the Corinthian capitals are all made of *papier mache*. This work has been rendered water-proof by saturation in certain chemical mixtures. There are extensive manufactories of *papier mache* in England and on the continent, from which the invention originated. It is not manufactured to any considerable extent in this country, but when it is commenced, it is believed we shall be able to outstrip everything that has been done in Europe. The manufacture of this article is very simple. It is made of plain gray wrapping paper, which tears with a touch, pasted together in successive layers, with a paste made of glue, flour, and boiling water. When in the form of furniture, the paper is pasted upon a model to a sufficient thickness—then pressed with extreme power—then the paper is cut in halves on the model, and glued together on the edges—then turned, sawed, filed and polished. It is then varnished and baked, and baked and varnished again. The last baking is made at 230 degrees of the thermometer, which gives the beautiful black color all *papier mache* articles have. The ornamenting is then put on. If to be inlaid, the pearl and other material is fastened on in extreme thin layers, and more coats of varnish put on until the inlaying and the varnish present an uniform surface; then it is again polished, and finally the painting and the shading are done, and the work is completed. *Papier mache* is very strong and durable; when solid, on account of the immense pressure it is subjected to, it is heavier than wood—but when it is made hollow, as with furniture, it is lighter and stronger, too. We are inclined to believe that in ten years *papier mache* furniture will be generally used, and be afforded not much above the price of first rate rosewood or mahogany at the present time.

THE PANTOGRAPH.

Among the wonderful discoveries or inventions ending in "graph," the pantograph seems destined to take no second place. It is a cutting and carving machine, which works with amazing celerity, great precision and finish, and is applicable to innumerable purposes of ornament and use. This remarkable invention has been patented by Mr. Searby. Acting on the principle of the slide-rest, or floating bed, and directed by the pantograph, the machine is moved with such facility and exactness in all the directions of the cube, under a fixed tool or tools, that it is capable of producing, in cutting, carving, or engraving, a fac-simile of almost anything presented to its operation.

The enumeration of all the purposes to which this strange piece of mechanism is applicable would exhaust imagination. The hardest substances offer no impediment to its powers. In stone or marble, in ivory or wood, in pearl or metal, it can turn out copies of any shape you please; and by a principle of easy adjustment, on a scale as much larger or smaller than the original as may be desired. It will engrave seals to any pattern; turn out an exact copy of the Medician Venus, or the Greek Slave; furnish blocks to the calico-printer, the floor-cloth manufacturer, the paper-stainer, and the letter-press printer; execute monumental tablets and architectural ornaments; form saw-handles; cut names and sign-boards; or do anything else which requires any sort of shape or impression to be given to the hardest materials, performing that which appears the most difficult or delicate feat with as much dispatch, exactness, and finish as the easiest and least pretending.

The utility of the machine may be inferred from its applicability in the single department of saw-handles. The saw-handle manufacture of Sheffield alone employs four hundred hands, who make, on an average, fifteen handles each a day, or 36,000 a week, which, at one penny per handle, would return £7,860 per annum. Now, one of these machines, managed by a man and a boy, will produce 800 handles a day from one cutter; but, as each machine may have three cutters or more, it is obvious that the entire trade might be supplied by a few machines. It remains only to mention, that the machine is cheap, and may be wrought with ease by any description of power from hand to steam.

THE HYDRAULIC RAM.

The hydraulic ram is a simple mechanical apparatus, constructed upon philosophical principles, and is used very effectively in raising a portion of the water from a spring or running brook above the level of its fountain head. The following description, it is believed, will be easily understood. Suppose a water pipe is laid along down the course of the stream through which the water is required to pass. The lower end of the pipe is closed, and near that extremity is an orifice on the upper side, which is opened and closed on the inside by a puppet valve, shaped something like an inverted barrel bung. There is also another similar orifice and valve opening outward from the main pipe, and into an air vessel. Now let both valves be closed. As there is then no means of escape for the water in the pipe leading from the spring, it is brought to a state of rest. The valve opening inward is loaded so that its gravity is greater than the pressure of the water at rest in the pipe; it consequently falls into the pipe, leaving the orifice open through which the water immediately begins to rush with increasing velocity, until its momentum becomes such as to push up the valve to its place in the orifice. The momentum of the water suddenly stopped in its course is such as to lift up the other valve opening outward into the air vessel, through which the water rushes, compressing the air into a smaller compass, until the reaction of the air is in equilibrium with the action of the water, when the valve No. 2 falls back to its place and prevents the water in the air vessel going back again into the main pipe. The water in the main pipe then having no escape is again brought to rest, whereupon valve No. 1 falls down again by its own weight, and the process is again repeated. From the air vessel a discharging pipe leads off to the upper story of a house, or any other place where the water is wanted, to which point it is driven by the elasticity of the compressed air in the vessel. Of course, the amount of water raised, compared to the whole, will be in inverse ratio to the elevation of the discharging point above the fountain-head. The momentum of the blow forcing the water into the air vessel when the valve closes, was well illustrated at the time the fountain was first put in action on Boston Common, where, it will be recollected, the momentum of the water was so great at the sudden stoppage of the jet as to burst the pipes and deluge the Common.

SOURCES OF PERFUMES.

Whether any perfumed lady would be disconcerted at learning the sources of her perfumes, each lady must decide for herself; but it seems that Mr. De la Rue and Dr. Hoffman, in their capacities as jurors of the Great Exhibition, have made terrible havoc among the perfumery. They have found that many of the scents said to be procured from flowers and fruits, are really produced from anything but flowery sources; the perfumers are chemists enough to know that similar odors may be often produced from dissimilar substances, and if the half-crown bottle of perfume really has the required odor, the perfumer does not expect to be asked what kind of odor was emitted by the substance whence the perfume was obtained. Now, Dr. Lyon Playfair, in his summary of the jury investigation above alluded to, broadly tells us that these primary odors are often almost unbearable. "A peculiarly fœtid oil, termed fusel oil, is formed in making brandy and whisky; this fusel oil, distilled with sulphuric acid and acetate of potash, gives the oil of pears. The oil of apples is made from the same fusel oil, by distillation with sulphuric acid and bichromate of potash. The oil of pine-apples is obtained from a product of the action of putrid cheese on sugar, or by making a soap with butter, and distilling it with alcohol and sulphuric acid, and is now largely employed in England in making pine-apple ale. Oil of grapes and oil of cognac, used to impart the flavor of French cognac to British brandy, are little else than fusel oil. The artificial oil of bitter almonds, now so largely employed in perfuming soap and for flavoring confectionery, is prepared by the action of nitric acid off the fœtid oils of gas-tar. Many a fair forehead is damped with *eau de millefleurs*, without knowing that its essential ingredient is derived from the drainage of cow-houses." In all such cases as these, the chemical science involved is really of a high order, and the perfume produced is a *bona fide* perfume, not one whit less sterling than if produced from fruits and flowers. The only question is one of commercial honesty, in giving a name no longer applicable, and charging too highly for a cheaply-produced scent. This mode of saving a penny is chemically right, but commercially wrong.

ITEMS OF BRITISH PUBLIC EXPENDITURE.

For the year 1852-53 the grant required for public works and buildings is £621,231. In the preceding year the sum voted was £508,652, and in 1850 £587,504. The government require to be voted for law and justice for the current year the sum of £1,294,374, against £1,097,611 in the preceding year. From a parliamentary paper just published it appears that, for the year 1852-53, £470,762 is required for education, science, and art. In 1851 the sum was £435,920, and in 1850, £414,802. The sum required to be voted for civil contingencies for the current year is £100,000. In 1849 the expenditure defrayed from the grant for civil contingencies was \$51,653; in 1850, £65,371; and in 1851, £89,875. The sum to be voted for salaries, &c., in public departments for 1852-53, is £1,032,233, against £995,855 in 1851, and £1,030,387 in 1850. The sum required for civil services for 1852, £4,182,086. In 1851 the sum was £3,948,102, and in the preceding year £4,065,642. The increase compared with 1850 was £116,444, and the increase compared with 1851 was £233,984. Among the sums to be voted by the House of Commons under the head of civil services is £40,200 in the present year on account of the census of the population. Last year £130,000 was voted. The sum of 253,587 is required to be voted for the current year for convict establishments in the colonies, being an increase of £70,557 on the preceding year. According to the estimates just printed the sum of £869,318 will be required to be voted for colonial, consular, and other foreign services in the current year. In 1851 the sum voted was £424,638, and in 1850, £441,527. The last class, the estimates about to be proposed to the House of Commons, is termed, "special and temporary objects." The sum required for the year 1853 is only £81,145, being a decrease of £118,517 compared with 1851, and £37,318 compared with the year 1850. The sum to be voted for government superannuation and charities for the year 1852-53 is larger than last year by £25,255. The sum in 1851 was £187,568, and in the present year £213,023 is required to be voted.

BOHEMIAN CRYSTAL KNIVES.

Among the various novelties prepared for the new year, says a Paris correspondent of the *Journal of Commerce*, and in which the shops of Paris abound, the prettiest I have seen are at the brilliant porcelain establishment of Bourlet, 14 Boulevard Pois-

sonniere, where may be found the rarest and finest specimens of Sevres and other French china. There are fruit knives of Bohemian crystal; the blade is of white crystal, and the handle a happy mixture of white and blue, or white and claret colors. Hitherto silver knives have been thought indispensable for fruit; but this crystal novelty is likely to supersede them; they are not only an ornament for a dinner table, but are more easily kept clean and bright than silver.

MODIFICATION OF THE USURY LAWS.

In the following memorial, relative to a modification of the Usury Laws, which has been unanimously adopted by the New York Chamber of Commerce, we entirely concur:—

CHAMBER OF COMMERCE, NEW YORK, January 6, 1854.

To the Honorable the Legislature of the State of New York, in Senate and Assembly convened.

The memorial of the Chamber of Commerce of the State of New York, respectfully represents,

That the present law of this State, regulating the rate of interest, is more stringent and severe than any other usury law in the United States or in Europe.

That in the ratio of this increased severity has been the tendency of said law to disturb and agitate the price for the use of money, when any circumstances has arisen to carry the price of money the smallest fraction above the legal rate, and this, because of the increased compensation consequent upon the risk of illegality, also caused, in part, by the driving away of law-abiding competitors.

That it can be shown, by historic facts from the earliest ages, that wherever the usury laws have been the most lenient, other things being equal, the rate of interest has been lowest.

That the impression which has sometimes prevailed as to the movements for a modification coming from money lenders in Wall-street, is entirely erroneous, much the greater portion of the parties now asking a relaxation borrow more money than they lend.

That your memorialists are confident in the opinion that the law relative to the interest of money should merely fix a rate to govern in the absence of a written contract between the parties, and leave borrowers and lenders free to contract upon any terms they themselves may deem advisable.

That, notwithstanding this opinion, your memorialists, with all deference to certain hereditary or other feelings cherished by portions of their fellow-citizens in regard to usury, would, in the spirit of compromise, recognize the principle of some penalty for infractions of the usury law.

Pursuant to this, your memorialists, in conclusion, would most respectfully ask that the penalty may be changed from fine and imprisonment and loss of the entire sum loaned, to a loss of the interest only.

P. PERIT, President.

ED. C. BOGERT, Secretary.

MUSCOVADO SUGAR.

A new method of manufacturing sugar has been discovered and patented by Don Juan Ramos, of the island of Porto Rico, by the agency of which Muscovado sugars may be manufactured in increased quantities of superior quality, and at much less expense than heretofore. The improvement consists entirely in the use of an ingredient for the cleansing of the liquor, and so wonderful are said to be its effects that at a trial made in the presence of a number of planters, and subjected to the most rigorous tests, the new mode of manufacture showed a saving of 41 per cent—or the production from the same quantity of cane of sugar and molasses to the value of \$1,520 44, against \$1,077 91 produced by the old mode of manufacture. A sample of sugar made by the new process is thus spoken of by the *London Times*:—

“Whether with regard to quality, color, or strength, this sample of Muscovado sugar has elicited the admiration of all who have seen it. An eminent mercantile house, to whom the sample has been shown, pronounces it to be worth 39s, whilst a similar quality, manufactured by the old process, is selling in Liverpool at 28s. 6d.; so that, while the quantity is largely increased, as we have demonstrated, the value of the sugar is raised to the extent of ten shillings per cwt.”

 THE BOOK TRADE.

- 1.—*My Uncle Toby's Library*. By FRANCIS FORRESTER, Esq. 12 vols. New York: Geo. H. Rand.

This Library, just completed, consists of twelve volumes, neatly bound, and illustrated with upwards of sixty appropriate engravings. Each book is printed in large and handsome type, upon superior paper. The books are so written that, while each number is a complete story in itself, there is a connection between the whole series. We give the titles of each volume, as follows:—1. Arthur Ellerslie, or the Brave Boy—2. Redbrook; or, Who'll Buy my Water Cresses?—3. Minnie Brown; or, The Gentle Girl—4. Ralph Rattler; or, The Mischief Maker—5. Arthur's Temptation; or, The Lost Goblet—6. Aunt Amy; or, How Minnie Brown learned to be a Sunbeam—7. The Runaway; or, The Punishment of Pride—8. Fretful Lillia; or, The Girl who was compared to a Sting Nettle—9. Minnie's Pic-Nic; or, A Day in the Woods—10. Cousin Nelly; or, The Pleasant Visit—11. Minnie's Playroom; or, How to Play Calisthenics—12. Arthur's Triumph; or, Goodness Rewarded. A little girl of nine, at our elbow while we write, has read the series, and expresses her delight in no measured terms. Instruction and amusement are most happily blended in this admirable series of books.

- 2.—*The Complete Works of Thomas Campbell; with an original Biography*. Edited by EPES SARGENT. 8vo., pp. 479. Boston: Phillips, Sampson & Co.

This is, we believe, the most complete edition of the poetical works of Campbell that has ever been published. In addition to the poems in the Moxon editions, which are given according to the arrangements approved by the author in his lifetime, are fifty poems, some of which are hardly surpassed by the best of his acknowledged lyrics. One hundred pages of the volume are occupied with a comprehensive and beautiful memoir, compiled from the life and letters of the poet, and from the reminiscences of Mr. G. Redding, ten years Campbell's associate in editing the *New Monthly Magazine*. This has been done with taste and judgment by Mr. Sargent. The volume is illustrated with a faithful likeness of the poet in his early years, and full-length pen-and-ink sketch, representing him in the ease and undress of his study, in more advanced life.

- 3.—*Rollo's Tour in Europe. Rollo on the Atlantic*. 18mo., pp. 220. Boston: W. J. Reynolda.

The first of another series of the Rollo books, by Jacob Abbott, an announcement that will be hailed with delight by thousands of children throughout the land. In this volume the readers of the Rollo books will find a continuation of the history of the little hero, by giving them an account of the adventures which such a boy may be supposed to meet with in making the tour of Europe. In the series (six in number) instruction rather than amusement is aimed at, and in perusing them the reader may feel assured that all the information which they contain, not only in respect to the countries visited, and to the customs, usages and modes of life that are described, but also in regard to the general character of the incidents and adventures that the young travelers meet with, is in most strict accordance with fact. We predict for this series a popularity as wide and deserved as either of the author's former publications.

- 4.—*Dovecote; or, The Heart of the Homestead*. By the author of "Cap Sheaf." 12mo., pp. 361. Boston: John P. Jewett & Co.

This is a simple narrative of a poor "waif of the world," whose fortunes it follows through many changes, both adverse and fortunate, and who at last finds a home in the "Heart of the Homestead," worthy of the trusting and confiding nature of the poor wandering one. The book is interesting. Aside from the story, it is attractive for its vivid pictures of home life—its joys and sorrows: bringing up scenes which come home to the heart of the reader. It may be commended also for its description of natural scenery, its glowing accounts of hill and grove, meditations by the brook and river side—all of which tends to keep alive the interest of the story. Take it altogether, it is a readable book.

5.—*Hearts and Faces : or, Home Life Unveiled.* By PAUL CRETTON, author of "Father Brighthopes," &c. 18mo., pp. 295. Boston : Phillips, Sampson & Co.

6.—*Burrcliff ; its Sunshine and its Clouds.* By PAUL CRETTON, author of "Father Brighthopes," &c. 18mo., pp. 288. Boston : Phillips, Sampson & Co.

"Father Brighthopes," the author's first experiment at book making, found many friends and admirers. "Hearts and Faces" will, we predict, meet with similar success. The volume embraces a dozen tales, designed to illustrate American Home Life, and "to afford the reader a few simple and useful lessons as well as amusement for now and then a leisure hour." The every-day subjects which it touches, and the gentle feelings of the hearts to which it appeals, will doubtless secure for it a kind reception. "Burrcliff" is replete with agreeable and instructive sketches of every-day life. We seldom meet with works of so little pretension so rich in all the elements of a homely excellence.

7.—*The American Almanac and Repository of Useful Knowledge for the year 1854.* 12mo., pp. 852. Boston : Phillips, Sampson & Co.

The present is the twenty-fifth annual volume of this work. It has changed its editor and its publishers in that period two or three times. But it has lost none of its astronomical or statistical value, and as a book of reference, present and future, it will not suffer by comparison with the "British Almanac," or any similar work published at home or abroad. We are frequently applied to by foreigners visiting this country for the titles of works of reference, and we uniformly place the American Almanac on the catalogue. The astronomical department of this volume was prepared by Lieut. Charles Henry Davis, U. S. N., the accomplished Superintendent of the American Nautical Almanac.

8.—*A Treatise on the Peculiarities of the Bible ;* being an Exposition of the Principles involved in some of the most remarkable Facts and Phenomena recorded in Revelation. By Rev. E. D. RENDALL, author of "Antediluvian History." "Deity of Jesus Christ," &c. From the London edition. 12mo., pp. 396. Boston : Otis Clapp.

This work, which purports to be "a treatise on the peculiarities of the Bible," because, as the author says, the composition of that book, with its sentiments, events, phenomena, duties, hopes, &c., are all *peculiarities*. We should say that the treatise was rather designed by the author to set forth the peculiar views entertained of the Bible by the followers of Emanuel Swedenborg, who will ever be regarded as one of the most remarkable men of the age in which he lived. There is much in the work that will interest the inquirer after religious truth.

9.—*Western Characters ; or, Types of Border Life in the Western States.* By J. L. McCONNELL, author of "Talbot and Vernon," "The Glens," &c., with illustrations by Darley. 12mo., pp. 378. New York : J. S. Redfield.

The design of this work is to furnish a series of portraits of Western characters, embracing a few of the earlier, whose "mark" is traceable in the growing civilization of the West and South. The writer selects ideal rather than actual individuals, each representing a class ; and although arranged chronologically, the periods are not historical, but characteristic. The Indian, the Voyageur, the Pioneer, the Ranger, the Regulator, the Justice of the Peace, the Peddler, the Schoolmaster, the Schoolmistress, and the Politician, form the subjects of these sketches, and each picture combines the prominent traits belonging to the class thus chosen.

10.—*Art and Industry, as Represented in the Exhibition in the Crystal Palace, New York, 1853-54 ;* showing the Progress and State of the various Useful and Esthetic Pursuits. Revised and edited by HORACE GREELEY. 12mo., pp. 885. New York : J. S. Redfield.

This volume contains a series of descriptive sketches of the various productions on exhibition at Crystal Palace. These descriptions were originally published as furnished by one of the editors of that journal, for the *Tribune*, and now come out under the editorship of Mr. Greeley, who is at the head of the editorial department of that paper. It furnishes the best exposition of the various products on exhibition that has yet been published, and it is a work that we can recommend to those who have visited, who intend to visit, or wish to acquire a general knowledge of the various products of nature and art on exhibition.

- 11.—*Chambers' Home Book; or Pocket Miscellany: Containing a Choice Selection of Interesting and Instructive Reading for the Old and the Young.* 6 vols., each complete in itself. 12mo., pp. 360. Boston: Gould & Lincoln.

Chambers' publications have long since become celebrated for their merit and excellence. They comprise an extensive series, embracing almost all the branches of English literature. Those which have been devoted to miscellaneous and entertaining subjects, not only such as belong to the series before us, but others also which are not included, have been marked by a rare excellence of taste and judgment in the selection of their contents, and by a degree of entertainment which is both refined and elevated. The present volumes are the latest of Chambers' Miscellanies. Their contents are quite varied; but in every instance instructive and interesting. It is not easy to conceive how such a large amount of selected reading can well be made without occasional instances of articles somewhat tame or prosaic. A careful examination of these volumes has not brought to our notice a single instance in which we have thought there was any deficiency in the excellence of judgment, humor, and taste which are peculiar to the work. Under such impressions, we cannot hesitate heartily to recommend these volumes for family reading, for young persons, and even for those of mature years. There is no series over which so many hours can be spent by all classes of readers, and all will feel that time to have been well spent. The order observed in preparing the contents of each volume has been to combine tales, instructive essays, historical sketches, descriptive scenes, poetry, and anecdote—thus furnishing something adapted to every mood. In a word, we cannot leave these volumes without thanking the American publishers for the handsome dress in which they have clothed so much choice reading.

- 12.—*Hallucinations; or the Rational History of Apparitions, Visions, Dreams, Ecstasy, Magnetism, and Somnambulism.* By BRIERE DE BORISMONT. First American, from the second enlarged and improved Paris edition. 8vo., pp. 553. Philadelphia: Lindsay & Blakeston.

This is a translation of a work by one of the most distinguished French physicians of the day. It treats the subject of hallucinations in their relations to philosophy, medicine, religion, history, morality, and jurisprudence. The author, among other matters, attempts to prove that hallucination is not a necessary symptom of insanity, but that in certain cases it may be considered a purely physiological phenomenon. He insists on the necessity of establishing an intimate union between philosophy and medicine, especially on the treatment of mental diseases. The value of such a work to the philosopher, the practical physician, the lawyer, and even the theologian, will be readily admitted. We have found some parts of it exceedingly interesting, although not belonging to either of the classes just named.

- 13.—*The British Poets.* 18mo. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

We have noticed in a former number of the *Merchants' Magazine* the publication of the poetical works of Goldsmith, Gray, Cowper, Collins, Butler, Pope, Prior, &c., in all thirteen volumes, in uniform style. We have now before us the poems of Milton, in three volumes, and the poems of Thomson, in two volumes, to each of which there is prefixed a memoir—the former written by the Rev. John Mitford, and the latter by Sir Harris Nicolas. We are warranted in saying that the volumes of this collection of the British Poets will invite perusal, as well by their form and appearance, as by the character of their contents. The size and style of the volumes are those of Pickering's Aldine Poets, and such of the works of that edition as fall entirely within the plan of the present collection are to be embodied in it.

- 14.—*History of Greece.* By GEORGE GROTE, Esq. Vol. 11. Reprinted from the London edition. 18mo., pp. 522. New York: Harper & Brothers.

This history has already occupied a larger space than the author first anticipated. But one more volume will complete the work, and bring the history to the close of the generation contemporary with Alexander. This work, now nearly completed, is already regarded by readers and reviewers as one of the most interesting and valuable contributions in historical literature published during the present century.

- 15.—*Bleak House.* By CHARLES DICKENS. With Illustrations by H. K. Brown. 2 vols., 12mo., pp. 936. New York: Harper & Brothers.

Of all the editions of this last but not least of Dickens' novels, it is the best reproduced in this country. It is the library edition. The numerous illustrations by Brown are capital.

- 16.—*The Works of Joseph Addison, including the whole Contents of Bishop Hand's Edition, with Letters and other Pieces not found in any previous Collection: and Macaulay's Essay in his Life and Works. Edited with Critical and Explanatory Notes* By GEORGE WASHINGTON GREENE. Vol. 1. 12mo., pp. 600. New York: George P. Putnam & Co.

This is the only complete edition of Addison's works ever projected. It is to be comprised in five volumes, and include his contributions to the "Tattler," "Guardian," and "Spectator." The other parts of these celebrated works, viz., the papers of Steele, Swift, Pope, Tickell, &c., are to be published separately in two additional volumes, uniform with this edition of Addison. The volume before us, the first of the series, contains the poetical and dramatic writings, preceded by Macaulay's famous article upon Addison, which appeared in the "Edinburgh Review" some years ago, and which Thackeray cites as "a magnificent statue of the great writer and moralist of the last age, raised by the love and the marvelous skill and genius of one of the most illustrious artists of our own."

- 17.—*The Religion of Manhood; or the Age of Thought.* By Dr. J. H. ROBINSON. 12mo., pp. 247. Boston: Bela Marsh.

This work is put forth under the claim that the greater portion of its contents "was dictated, spoken, and written, while in the impressional state." The author's experience commenced, as he states, with the mechanical movements of his person, and then passed on to the mental phases. The mechanical soon ceased, and for two years past he has had but little of that kind of manifestation. The volume contains two introductions—one by the medium, Dr. Robinson, and the other by Mr. E. A. Newton, both logical and well written, and we will add, for the consolation of unbelievers in inspiration and spiritualism, without any indications of an insane condition of the organism of the brain.

- 18.—*The Errors of the Bible Demonstrated by the Truths of Nature; or Man's only Infallible Rule of Truth and Practice.* By a Student of the Bible and of Nature. 12mo., pp. 144. Boston: Bela Marsh.

After twelve years' study of the Bible, in the languages in which it was written, with an earnest desire to perfect himself in all goodness, and bring himself into harmony with the laws of nature and of nature's God, he found, as he tells us, the Bible to abound in moral precepts as pure as ever came from human lips. But as a book of authority to decide what is true and false in principle, and right and wrong in practice, he regards it as he does any other book. The author speaks of the Bible and Jesus plainly, but with apparent sincerity and fidelity to his own convictions.

- 19.—*The Old Forest Ranger; or Wild Sports of India on the Neilgharry Hills, in the Jungles, and on the Plains.* By Major WALTER CAMPBELL. Edited by FRANK FORESTER, author of "Field Sports," and "Fish and Fishing of the United States," &c. 12mo., pp. 382. New York: Stringer & Townsend.

Frank Forester, alias H. W. Herbert, is *par excellence* master of the literature of sporting, and seems to delight in the romance of sporting in all its varieties. There is in this delightful volume, (to quote from the editor,) for the naturalist abundant wealth of new anecdotes, ordinary habits and haunts, and instincts of animals known and described long since, of species, if not of genera, nondescript heretofore; and lastly, not leastly, there is "Lay of love for lady fair,"—and all this without a phrase of affectation, personality, conceit, or self-approbation.

- 20.—*The Art Journal for January.* London and New York: Geo. Virtue & Co.

This monthly journal of art maintains its high standing with unflagging interest. Its contents are as rich, instructive, and varied as at any previous period. The embellishments consist of a fine engraving entitled "Raising the May Pole;" also "Hylas and the Nymphs," from a group of sculpture by J. Gibson; and "The Vintage," from a picture in the Vernon Gallery—with numerous specimens of the Dutch art.

- 21.—*The Works of John Adams, Second President of the United States: With a Life of the Author.* Notes and Illustrations by his Grandson, CHARLES FRANCIS ADAMS. Vol. 8. 8vo., pp. 691. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

The present volume, the eighth of the series, contains the official correspondence of John Adams down to the second year of his Presidency. The style in which these volumes are published is not surpassed by similar works from the British press.

- 22.—*Dress as a Fine Art*. With Suggestions on Children's Dress. By MRS. MERRIFIELD. With an Introduction on Head Dress. By Professor FAIRHOLT. 4to., pp. 448. Boston: John P. Jewett & Co.

This work has already received the approbation of the best public journals in this country. The fact that the several chapters it contains were originally prepared for the "*London Art Journal*," is of itself a sufficient recommendation of the work. The chapter on head-dresses by Professor Fairholt, which commences the book, is one of much interest, and affords an explanation of many of the descriptions in the body of the work. The other chapters are devoted to dress as a fine art; the head, the dress, the feet, remarks on particular costumes—ornament and economy. The closing chapter on children's dress by Mrs. Merrifield, it is thought will be of more value to most persons than the cost of the entire work. It is amply illustrated with plates, and is beautifully printed and handsomely bound.

- 23.—*Passages from the History of a Wasted Life*. By a Middle-Aged Man. Edited by the Author of "Pen-and-Ink Sketches," "Pen-and-Ink Pictures of British Preachers," "Life of Chatterton," &c., &c. Illustrated by Billings. Engraved on Wood by Baker, Smith & Andrew. 18mo., pp. 248. Boston: B. B. Mussey & Co.

This book is startling from its reality. Its power is its truth, its thorough exhibition of a tortured heart, its frightful experience of the misery of self-abandonment. There is a painful fascination in every chapter; you dread to go on, yet you dare not stop; you sympathize with the penitent sufferer while your heart aches with sorrow at such a sacrifice. Somewhat familiar with the oral and written confessions of reformed inebriates, this tear-steeped history differs from them in its thorough familiarity with London wretchedness, in the originality of the writer's pen, and the fervor of his soul. The other lives sketched in connection with the author's own are not fancy-pieces, but drawn directly from life.

- 24.—*Outlines of the Geology of the Globe, and of the United States in particular: With two Geological Maps, and Sketches of Characteristic American Fossils*. By EDWARD HICCOCK, D. D., LL. D., President of Amherst College, and Professor of Natural Theology and Geology. 8vo., pp. 186. Boston: Phillips, Sampson & Co.

Although this comprehensive work was prepared as a sequel to the author's "*Elementary Geology*," it will enable the general reader to get, without wading through many volumes, a pretty good general knowledge of the geology of the globe. The excellent maps which accompany it teach more than many pages of letter-press. As a book of reference it is invaluable.

- 25.—*Glad Tidings; or the Gospel of Peace*. A Series of Daily Meditations for Christian Disciples. By Rev. W. K. TWENDIE, D. D., Free Tolbooth Church, Edinburgh. Boston: Gould & Lincoln.

Religion in this little work is contemplated under various aspects—as it existed in man's soul when first created; as revealed and recorded in the Bible; as embodied in doctrines, which are intellectually believed upon sufficient evidence; and, finally, as "taught to an individual soul by the Holy Spirit, according to the inspired volume." The author maintains that the last is the standard and substance of all that is true in regard to salvation. The volume is beautifully printed.

- 26.—*Christmas Holidays at Chernal Hill*. By COUNIN MARY. Boston: Phillips, Sampson & Co.

- 27.—*Little Blossom's Reward: a Christmas Book for Children*. By MRS. EMILY HARE. Boston: Phillips, Sampson & Co.

These two volumes, by different writers, are beautiful in all that pertains to the art of book making. The illustrations are finely executed, and the paper, type, and binding are not surpassed by the materials of more costly books. The tales and sketches are worthy of the fine dress in which they appear.

- 28.—*Dashes of American Humor*. By HOWARD PAUL. Illustrated by John Leech. 12mo., pp. 306. New York: Garrett & Co.

A very pleasant and agreeable book, abounding in picturesque, graphic and humorous sketches, some thirty in number. The English edition of this work was very favorably noticed by the London press. The illustrations by Leech, the distinguished artist whose contributions to "*Punch*" have been enjoyed all over the world, are capital. The author is a writer of rare humor, and his book will do much to drive away the "blues."

29.—*The Book of Nature: An Elementary Introduction to the Sciences of Physics, Astronomy, Chemistry, Mineralogy, Geology, Botany, Zoology, and Physiology.* By FRIEDRICH SCHÖRDLER, Ph. D., Professor of Natural Sciences at Worms, and formerly Assistant in the Chemical Laboratory of Giessen. First American Edition, With a Glossary and other Additions and Improvements, from the Second English Edition, Translated from the Sixth German Edition, by HENRY MEDLOCK, F. C. L., &c. Illustrated with six hundred and ninety-seven Engravings on Wood. 8vo, pp. 691. Philadelphia: Blanchard & Lea.

The title page quoted above indicates its character and contents. Founded on a scientific basis, and composed with simplicity and clearness, this work presents a general and comprehensive view of all the principal branches of the natural and physical sciences. The estimation in which it is held by the Germans, is testified by the sale of twenty thousand copies in five years. This edition contains all the improvements and additions of the last German and English, and the American publishers in reproducing it have spared no pains to render it even better adapted to the American student.

30.—*Benedictions of the Blessed Life.* By the Rev. JOHN CUMMING, D. D., F. R. S. E., Minister of the Scottish National Church. 12mo, pp. 494. Boston: John P. Jewett & Co.

The design of this work is to exhibit the constituent elements of the "Blessed Life," and thus the eloquent Scotch Divine attempts to show in opposition to the Rationalistic School, who think it can be realized on earth, irrespective of, and even in direct opposition to Christianity. It is an eloquently written treatise, and is prepared with a life-like pen-and-ink sketch of the author, from the pen of that accomplished scholar, John Ross Dix.

31.—*History of New Amsterdam; or New York as it Was in the Days of the Dutch Governors.* Together with Papers on Events connected with the American Revolution, and on Philadelphia in the Times of William Penn. By Professor A. DAVIS, Corresponding Member of the New York Historical Society, &c., &c. 18mo., pp. 240. New York: R. T. Young.

Mr. Davis has given us an interesting volume. His history of the Island of the Manhattans, with the particulars of its growth and changes, is concise and comprehensive. Appended we have an account of the early settlement of Albany and other river towns. The second part, which refers to the discovery of America, the French war, and that of the Revolution, will be read with interest.

32.—*Mrs. Partington's Carpet-Bag of Fun.* With 150 Engravings, from Designs by Darley, McLenan, Leech, Phiz, Henning, Cruickshank, Hine, Doyle, Finnie, Guater, Crowquill, &c. By S. P. AVERY. 18mo., pp. 300. New York: Garrett & Co.

An omnibus of things new and old; for the most part the latter. It contains but few of the sayings and doings of the genuine Mrs. Partington. But its "rich humor and amusement" will serve to excite the risibles of the most sedate, and to drive "dull care" from the face, if not from the heart, of the most desponding. The works of genuine Mrs. Partington are, we understand, in press, and will shortly make their appearance.

33.—*The Preacher and the King; or Bourdaloue in the Court of Louis XIV.* Being an Account of the Pulpit Eloquence of that distinguished Era. Translated from the French of L. BANGENER, Paris. 12th edition. With an Introduction by the Rev. GEORGE PORRS, D. D., Pastor of the University Place Presbyterian Church, New York. 12mo., pp. 338. Boston: Gould & Lincoln.

This is substantially a work on pulpit eloquence, and its criticisms are embodied in a spirited narrative, embracing occurrences and persons which belong to what has been called the Augustan Age of France. The translator seems to have retained the spirit of the French author, if not the language.

34.—*Clinton: A Book for Boys.* By WM. SIMONDS. With Illustrations. 12mo., pp. 275. Boston: Gould & Lincoln.

The story of Clinton is designed chiefly to illustrate, by example, the importance of early habits of obedience and industry; the danger of mingling with unprincipled and vicious companions, and the necessity of being able to say "No" when tempted to do wrong. It is well written, and will be found attractive to all young readers.



*Yours sincerely
Saml Appleton*





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16. 10.

HUNT'S MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.

Established July, 1839,

BY FREEMAN HUNT, EDITOR AND PROPRIETOR.

VOLUME XXX.

MARCH, 1854.

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HUNT'S

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE

AND

COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

MARCH, 1854.

Art. I.—COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES.

NO. VI.

MARYLAND—WILLIAM CLAYBORNE, HER FIRST MERCHANT—CONNECTICUT—SHIP-MONEY—SALEM—PROVIDENCE—NEW HAVEN—NEW SWEDEN—COMMERCIAL LEGISLATION IN MASSACHUSETTS—TOBACCO, ETC., IN VIRGINIA—MANUFACTURES: COTTON, IRON, ETC., IN MASSACHUSETTS—TARIFF IN CONNECTICUT—CIVIL WAR IN ENGLAND—NEW ENGLAND CONFEDERACY—FIRST NAVIGATION ACT—BEGINNING OF THE WEST INDIA TRADE—REVIEW AT 1650.

CALVERT, Lord Baltimore, after ineffectual attempts to establish a Catholic colony at Newfoundland, had obtained from Charles, in 1632, a grant lying within the domain that had belonged to the defunct Virginia Company. The charter stipulated that *no tax whatever* should be imposed by the crown upon the colony to be founded by Baltimore, and also expressly provided for the freedom of the fisheries within the adjoining waters. Baltimore made agriculture the basis of the settlement, granting most liberal terms to the settlers. To all persons defraying the expense of their own emigration, he gave one hundred acres of land, and as much for each adult of their families, and fifty acres for children under six years of age. To any one carrying out five persons and paying their expense, estimated at £200, the grant was one thousand acres. Full security of property and freedom of religion was guaranteed.

Although agriculture was to be the prime pursuit, Commerce was by no means designed to be neglected. Indeed, more favorable circumstances for its growth could hardly be named than those above stated.

The first party sent out to form the colony of MARYLAND consisted of 200 emigrants under Leonard Calvert, provided, beside necessities for themselves, with articles for trade with the Indians. Sailing in December, 1633, they arrived in March, 1634. Calvert bought of the Indians a large tract on a branch of the Potomac, the purchase including the present occupation of half of an Indian village, with the right to the corn growing adjacent,

and the possession of the whole village at the end of harvest. The payment was made in hatchets, knives, hoes, cloth, and other articles. The harvest proved abundant, and the colony, unlike its predecessors, had neither want nor the fear of it. Great advantage was derived by the propinquity of the settlement to Virginia, with which a trade was instituted from the first, the Virginians supplying them with meat, poultry, &c.

Clayborne, whose trading establishments in the upper waters of the Chesapeake, under a previous patent from Charles and the authority of Virginia, we have noticed, was summoned to yield obedience to the government of the new colony, which he refused to do. The government of Virginia upheld him, and complained of the settlement by Baltimore as an encroachment upon their charter, and its intercourse with the Indians as an invasion of their own rights of trade. The dispute was carried to the Court of the Star-Chamber in England, which decided that "things stand as they do;" the planters on either side to have free intercourse with, and to mutually assist each other.

Our historians have uniformly done great injustice to the character of William Clayborne, as has been too much the case also in regard to another merchant figuring largely in the early annals of another colony—Jacob Leisler, in New York. It is full time a better award were made to these men. Some amends have indeed been made toward Leisler; but no American writer, we believe, has essayed a defense of the first established merchant within the State of Maryland. The invariable style, followed even by so late a writer as Bancroft, is to speak of him as a turbulent, reckless fellow, whose whole desire was to harass and injure the colony of a man whose aim was to live on good terms with everybody, in which assumption an overjustice is done to the character of Baltimore.

Clayborne's patent, indeed, referred to *trade* only, and did not expressly authorize *settlement*; but this distinction was only a subterfuge of the jurists who dared not displease Charles, with whom Baltimore was a favorite. The very idea of trade carried on in the heart of an Indian country implied settlement among them, without which it could not be conducted upon any considerable extent, or with much profit. All adventurers, of all nations, hitherto essaying continuous trade with the Indians, had considered the establishment of posts in the Indian country an essential part of the plan, and whoever asked of any king the right of this traffic, was understood to receive in the grant, the right of forming these necessary establishments. Indeed, trade was itself regarded as a principal means by which the colonies were to be nursed into strength, and to become profitable to their founders and patrons, and, as we have noticed, in all the patents hitherto specified, by whatever nation granted, Commerce was the leading object indicated as a contemplated result of the authorized colonization. Trade, then, implying settlement, and settlement involving the extension of trade, matters so greatly in the desire of all the European governments possessing territory in America, these governments were not inclined to refuse applications for either object in that quarter, but usually insisted on the union of both in every patent that was issued for adventure thither. The English king and courts could not but know what Clayborne was doing under the grant to him. If he had violated the terms of his charter in establishing settlements, he would have been informed thereof. Not only was no dissatisfaction shown, but the government could not but be pleased that so enterprising a man had taken in hand to forward the object it so earnestly desired,

of extending and strengthening its American settlements and its American Commerce. It was certainly glad to hear of a flourishing establishment upon Kent Island, upon which Clayborne had expended so large a sum as £6,000, and which had risen to the consequence of sending two burgesses to the Virginia Assembly.

Again, there was the right of Virginia within the disputed territory. The whole cession to Baltimore was within the original grant to the Virginia Company of London. That association, it is true, had been several years suppressed, and Virginia had become a royal province. But had the original stipulations made between the king and the company no virtual application toward the colony itself, which still existed? One portion of those stipulations directly, and the rest of them indirectly, concerned the interests of the settlers, who had come over in the guaranty afforded by the charter of certain privileges and encouragements, which were to be perpetual, or if changed, were not to be diminished.

One of these provisions regarded the *extent of territory* the settlers might occupy, thus securing to them, within certain limits, the extension of settlement without any rupture of social and political affinities. The charter to Clayborne, combined with his arrangement with Virginia, had occasioned the formation of settlements in the upper portion of the assigned territory of that colony, and settlers from other parts of Virginia, as well as people from abroad, had been induced thither in the accepted understanding that the authority of Virginia reached over and was engaged to protect them and their interests, and were entirely unwilling that any other power should supersede her in that office. Had the king or his courts any right to disintegrate a colony thus established and thus extended under charter from his own hand?

But in regard, once more, to Clayborne's right of settlement, suppose he had no authority to establish permanent stations: the undisputed *right of trade*, still of itself alone, fully invalidated Baltimore's claim. Colonization, or a forced jurisdiction by the latter within the region assigned to Clayborne's use, would have interrupted and defeated *that* object; and as the charter of Clayborne had priority, and stood yet unrevoked—there being, indeed, no reasonable pretense that could be urged for its revocation any more than for the withdrawal of that of Baltimore himself—the latter was plainly shut out, if the dictates of justice were heeded, from whatever territory his antagonist had appropriated.

Finally, there was no occasion for any collision of the establishments of Clayborne and Baltimore, arising out of any necessary interference of one with the interests of the other. The distance between them was sufficient to conserve harmony, had both parties been desirous of peace and kindly relations. If either was disadvantaged by the other, the inconvenience was on the side of Clayborne's establishment, which, being further up the bay than the other, might be considered liable to have its connection with the ocean interrupted by its neighbors below. The position of Clayborne's settlements, too, would have made them some protection to the lower ones against the Indians. As for room, Baltimore could have no fear the expansion of his colony would at any time be curbed from a want of that nature. It was, then, the fault of this man, so much praised as the paragon of justice, benevolence, and liberality—qualities which he failed in more cases than this one to exhibit—it was the fault of him, and of agents acting under his orders, that the needless quarrel between two young settle-

ments in America arose ; that war followed, that blood was shed, and that peaceful and prosperous establishments were broken up and given over again to desolation.

The decision of the Star-Chamber, certainly, offered no excess of justice to Clayborne. Either he had rights within the disputed district or he had none. If he had any right, either of settlement or trade, Baltimore had none of either. If he had no right, justice to Baltimore, nay, the explicit obligations of the patent granted to him, left no other course but the unconditional submission or total expulsion of the interloper and his adherents. It is astonishing that facts so self-evident as those we have considered should have been so entirely overlooked by all our historians, of whom it may be suspected that, on this point at least, the most have been too much inclined to rely upon each other's assertions, instead of patiently examining the case for themselves.

In 1634, *three thousand* emigrants came to Massachusetts Bay from England. To stop the tide which tended thither so strongly, the king ordered, this year, by proclamation, that none above the condition of serving-men should emigrate without leave. Intolerance on the part of the colony, also, was now added to the causes tending to limit its prosperity. Roger Williams was banished as a Quaker,* and thenceforth, to about 1660, Massachusetts was involved in, and her interests affected by continual religious conflict.

The Dutch sent a force from New Amsterdam to dislodge the settlers from Plymouth, on the Connecticut; but finding the latter too strongly posted, they returned.

Charles I. commenced, in 1634, levying *ship-money*—a leading cause of his overthrow. The measure was founded upon an ancient practice of British kings, of exacting ships of the coast towns, money being accepted from those towns which chose to give it in lieu of furnishing the required vessels. The practice was resorted to only for defense in a period of war. Charles revived it in time of profound peace, for the sake of ordinary supplies, and extended it to the whole kingdom. The colonies were exempted, not entirely, however, we must suppose for their weakness. Charles looked rather unfavorably on one of them at least—Massachusetts—and would gladly have imposed some burden on its too free energies. But the parliamentary party held possession of London and the principal seaports, so that any revenue brought from the colonies would have inured to the benefit of his enemies; and, beside this, he knew it was in contravention of the charter given by himself and his father to tax the colonies without their consent, and probably was not yet prepared to attempt the folly which was reserved for men who thought themselves wiser than he. The ship levy was not without benefit to both Great Britain and her colonies. It enabled the collection of that fleet with which the Dutch were afterward defeated, and the commercial supremacy of England finally established.

The number of villages clustered around the Bay of Massachusetts, and the extent of their population, now encouraged progress to the *westward*. Only seven years, therefore, from the settlement of Salem, the first town within Massachusetts, a party of sixty, led by Rev. John Hooker, went one hundred miles into the wilderness, and founded the town of Hartford. With

* The Quakers were then the most extravagant, rude, and contentious of religious sects, instead of being, as since, by a strange metamorphosis, the reverse of all this.

this and the Plymouth movement toward the same quarter, began that *western emigration* which has since assumed so great a magnitude, and to which New England has ever contributed a leading element. In October the younger Winthrop, under a commission from Lords Say and Seal and Brooke, settled Saybrook, at the mouth of Connecticut River, and midway between Plymouth and New Amsterdam. Springfield was soon afterward settled. The Virginia colony as yet had extended only along the line of the James River and on the Chesapeake.

The exports from New Amsterdam to Holland, to the interest of the West India Company, in 1635, were 14,891 beaver skins, and 1,413 other skins, valued at 134,925 guilders, or about \$54,000.

The Maryland authorities, in disregard of the decision of the Star-Chamber, passed an act of attainder against Clayborne, and fitted out an expedition against him, he preparing to resist by force. A vessel of his, called the Longtail, was captured after a fight in which the captain and several of the crew were killed. Kent Island was carried by a midnight assault, Clayborne having himself fled to Virginia: under the ban of treason to Baltimore, his property was confiscated, and the settlement demolished.*

1636. About this time Hugh Peters, a celebrated divine in Salem, incited the people of that town to raise a capital for entering vigorously the fishing business, to build vessels, and to embark in general Commerce. His zeal in the effort was untiring, and he engaged personally in these enterprises himself. So successful was the attempt, that while Peters resided there, Salem had no rival in the colony in maritime concerns, and claimed to be the capital. It was not until after his departure that the business of Salem was checked, and Boston obtained the ascendancy. Peters was an active republican in England during the war soon after between Charles and the parliament, and was executed therefor upon the restoration.

The Indians of Block Island, supposed to be in alliance with the Pequoda, who were getting troublesome, surprised and plundered a trading vessel belonging to Connecticut, and killed the captain.

Roger Williams, banished from Massachusetts, settled PROVIDENCE. He bought the land of two powerful chiefs of the Narragansett tribe, and soon learned enough of their language to transact the affairs of trade and other necessary negotiations.†

1637. A squadron of eight ships, filled with emigrants, preparing to sail for Massachusetts, Charles took the alarm, and issued a proclamation to stop this "disorderly emigration." Most of those intending to go, however, ef-

* Samuel Champlain, the able and energetic Governor of Canada, died in 1635. Few men could have triumphed over the obstacles he encountered. After his death, the growth of the colony languished, though the fur trade was followed with spirit. The Iroquois war still fiercely continued.

The French settled *Guadaloupe* and *Martinico*, and the Dutch *St. Eustatia*, in 1635. France occupied a very high position at this time, her manufactures having greatly advanced her wealth and power. The Spaniards effected the first regular white settlement at Paraguay, where had been Jesuit missionaries since 1536.

1635. The English East India Company was re-chartered. Charles directed that their vessels, on the return from India and China, should attempt to find a passage homeward by way of the northern part of America.

† Charles having enlarged his navy to sixty ships, attacked the Dutch herring fishers on the British coast, and obliged them to pay £30,000 for a license. The Dutch, however, still denied the right of the English to the exclusive use of those seas. Hume styles this fleet of Charles, "the greatest the English had ever known," which is an error, as the fleet with which Elizabeth opposed the Spanish Armada in 1588, consisted of over 100 vessels.

A ship called the "Sovereign of the Seas" was built in 1637 at Woolwich, for the royal navy, which was the largest then known. She was of 123 feet keel, 232 feet on deck, 48 feet breadth, had three decks, and was of the exact burden designated by the figures of the year in which she was built—1637.

fected their purpose. The population of Massachusetts Bay this year was 7,912; of Plymouth colony, 549.

A party of emigrants from Massachusetts, headed by THEOPHILUS EATON, a merchant of great wealth, who had been deputy governor of the famous East India Company of England, proceeding overland, founded NEW HAVEN, about midway on the Sound, and the farthest westerly of any town then existing in New England. Trade was evidently the leading motive in the selection of this situation. Eaton was annually the governor of this new colony for twenty years, to his death. The colony soon assumed a flourishing condition.

The Pequod war, between the powerful tribe of that name and the three infant towns of Connecticut, occurred this year, ending in the extirpation of the tribe.

1638. Tobacco was produced at New Amsterdam, and *Negro slavery* existed to a considerable extent. Not long after this time, began the trade with the Dutch colonies of Curacao and Guayama, in the West Indies, and directly to Africa.

While the English were intruding upon the Dutch in the East, the Swedes appeared upon the territories they claimed at the South. Gustavus Adolphus, the famous king of Sweden, had chartered a commercial company for trade and settlement in America, in 1626; but the completion of the design had been delayed by a subsequent war. Upon his death, (at the battle of Lutzen, in 1633,) the plan was renewed by his able minister. A Swedish colony, under Peter Minuits, a superseded Dutch governor of the New Netherlands, was formed in 1638, in the present State of Delaware, and near Wilmington, on the west branch of the River Delaware. Kieft, the Director-general of the New Netherlands, not daring to attack them, remonstrated vainly, and built a fort at New Nassau, on the east bank, the site of the old settlement, to check them. The Swedes extending their settlements along the west side of the river, finally occupied from Cape Henlopen to the falls in the Delaware opposite Trenton, thirty miles above Philadelphia, calling the region *New Sweden*.

Baltimore, at the same time, whose patent extended to 40° N., intimated his claim to nearly all the territory of the Dutch.

Portsmouth, on the island called Rhode Island, was settled by Wm. Codrington and eighteen others banished from Massachusetts. The town includes the trading station of Prudence Island, before mentioned.

Clayborne having repaired to England, preferred his complaint before Charles, and the king wrote, under date of July 14, 1638, to Baltimore, in strongly indignant terms, referring to the former order that Clayborne and his associates "should in no sort be interrupted by you, but rather be encouraged to proceed cheerfully in so good a work," and peremptorily commands that farther molestation cease till the case be decided. It is stated by our historians that Baltimore preferred charges against Clayborne, on which he was sent to England *for trial*, but Murray, the able British historian of the United States, says all the evidences in England show that Clayborne was himself the *plaintiff*.*

1639. The general court of Massachusetts Bay commenced the protection

* In 1638 the Dutch and French jointly took St. Martin's from the Spaniards, and divided it between themselves, each settling a portion of it. The English West India Islands had not yet raised sugar cane, and were of little importance. They produced some indigo, cotton, ginger, and very bad tobacco.

and encouragement of the fisheries and trade of that colony by enacting that all vessels and all other property employed in catching, curing and transporting fish, according to the usual course of fishing voyages, shall be exempt from all duties and public taxes for seven years, and all fishermen, during the season of their business, shall be excused from military duty.

Mackerel were so plentiful this year, on the coast of Massachusetts, that Winthrop says three men in a boat could take ten hogsheads in a week, "which were sold at Connecticut for £3 12s. the hogshhead." The population of Massachusetts this year was 8,592.

Connecticut, consisting of three towns, became now independent of Massachusetts, and adopted a constitution of unexampled liberality, giving the fullest religious and political toleration.

NEWPORT, at the south end of Rhode Island, was formed by settlers from Portsmouth, at the north end.

The Virginia assembly passed an act providing that all tobacco planted in that colony that year and the two years succeeding should *be destroyed*, except such proportion to each planter as would make 120,000 pounds as the total crop, and that the creditors of the planters be obliged to receive *forty* pounds of tobacco for *every hundred* pounds due to them. Beside the iniquity of the latter, both of these measures were acts of egregious folly. Virginia had 30,000 cattle, 200 horses, and 70 asses.

April 4, 1639, the Commissioners of Plantations decided that as Clayborne's patent was only under the great seal of Scotland, (although it would have been difficult to show in what the faith of the king was less pledged by his word under the seal of Scotland than under that of the united empire,) and referred exclusively to *trade*, and that therefore Clayborne's claims must give way to those of Baltimore. The explanation of this unjust decision is found in the fact that Clayborne was a zealous adherent of the parliament, while Baltimore, *so long as royalty was ascendant*, was an ardent advocate of the prerogative. The American historians repeat certain charges relating to Clayborne's course at this time, which all emanated from the adherents of Baltimore. One of these, and the chief is, that he instigated the Indians to war against Maryland. Yet Baltimore himself, in his published "Case concerning the Province of Maryland," makes no allusion to the charge, and there was no Indian war in Maryland until eight years after the time when Clayborne is said to have been at work instigating hostilities.

1640. A severe crisis now occurred in Massachusetts. The chief drawback, hitherto, had been the enormous price of agricultural produce. But enlarged cultivation and the diminution of immigrants had now occasioned an overplus, and prices became so low as to be ruinous to the producer. Indian corn fell from 6s. to 3s. per bushel; a cow from above £20 to £5 to £7. All property depreciated so greatly, that men, considered wealthy, became unable to pay their debts. To make the matter worse for this class, wages still continued exorbitant. An attempt to reduce wages, by statute, failed. Persuasion being next tried, promised well at first, but soon failed, also. Severe as the crisis was, however, it did not seriously impede the advance of the chief industrial pursuits of the colony. It does not appear that the general court attempted, like Virginia, under the over-production of tobacco, to limit by law the amount of the product.

Within the last ten years 198 ships had arrived at Massachusetts, bringing, it is said, 21,200 persons, having with them property estimated at £200,000.

The settlers at the island of Rhode Island marked at the outset the advantages it enjoyed for trade. They early appointed a fixed time for carrying on their Commerce with the Indians, and with Plymouth colony, the nearest place whence they could obtain their needed supplies of European goods.

The traders of the New Netherlands colony had become—at least many of them—very rapacious and dishonest in their traffic with the Indians. The Indians had become irritated by this, and had, beside, been made improvident and reckless by the baneful fire-water which the Dutch had so freely furnished them in the trade. From these causes nearly all the tribes around united in a war upon the Dutch, which broke out in 1640, and lasted with varying success to about 1647, to the great distress of the colony, which was, at times, nearly overwhelmed.*

The Iroquois, or Five Nations, remained during this time at peace with the Dutch, being still at war with the French in Canada. They carried on considerable trade with the former, at Albany, receiving from them fire-arms, ammunition, &c.

1641. Lechford, in his "Plain Dealing; or, News from New England," published in London in 1642, stating the condition of the northern colonies in 1641, says the people of Massachusetts Bay were "setting on the manufacture of linen and cotton cloth" as well as the fishing trade; that they were "building plenty of ships, and had a good store of barks, catches, lighters, shallops, and other vessels;" and that they had builded and planted to admiration for the short time they had been there. Gov. Winthrop says Massachusetts exported this year 300,000 dry fish. Some English fishing vessels are still mentioned as on the coast.

Jan. 24, 1641. A vessel of forty to fifty tons, estimated to cost £200, and owned by thirteen individuals, was launched at Plymouth, being the first vessel of size built there.

New Hampshire, being a weak province, was, by its own act, in 1641 united to Massachusetts, and so remained till forcibly separated, in 1680, by the Crown.†

1642. The civil war broke out in England, news of which was brought to New England by the fishing vessels arriving on the coast. The parliamentary party were enabled to derive the benefits inuring from Commerce and the customs duties, having possession of London, with nearly all the seaports and large towns, and of the naval force of the kingdom. The supply of salt, which had been almost wholly derived from England, was short in Massachusetts, and it was feared the failure of export from England would oblige a suspension of the fisheries. But a ship loaded with salt arrived soon after, the cargo was paid for in pipe-staves, and the fishery went on. Ply-

* There is an account of a voyage by Du Fonte or Du Fuente, Vice Admiral of Peru, in 1640, who reached the Arctic Ocean from the Pacific, and at 77 deg. N. found a ship from Boston, New England, commanded by Capt. Shapleigh, attempting the passage from ocean to ocean in the polar sea. Though under orders to seize all vessels found seeking a N. W. route to the South Sea, the admiral told Shapleigh he would consider him only as a merchant trading for beaver skins. Nothing is known in Boston of the voyage, and the Spanish writers consider the whole story of Du Fuente a fiction.

† The Dutch in 1640 defeated a Spanish fleet of ninety ships, at Brazil. Portugal this year became again separated from Spain, and the history of its American colonies is therefore from this time distinct from those of Spain.

Charles levied ship money with increasing vigor, and the Commons, resisting, appealed to the people.

The Hanseatic League affirmed the privilege of free navigation and fishing in the seas, and declared damages could be recovered by any one obstructed therein.

† In 1641 the Dutch took from the Portuguese the island of Maranhão, on the coast of Brazil. Peace this year between Holland and Portugal.

mouth colony granted to five partners for twenty-one years, thirty acres of land, on an island in the harbor, to encourage them in the manufacture of salt.

The New Haven colony, but about four years settled, undertook the extension of its trade and settlements to the Delaware river. Some agents sent there bought large tracts on both sides of the river and bay, and erected a trading post. But Kieft, the governor of the New Netherlands, sent a force thither, which burned the post and seized the goods found there.

Sir William Berkeley, who was governor of Virginia from 1642 to 1652, carried his antipathy to tobacco, the great staple of the colony, to a pitch equal to that of king James. His efforts were devoted to its discouragement, by the substitution of silk, wine, glass, ashes, &c., and various manufactures, several times previously attempted. The leading men of the colony supported him in his project, but its success was very slight.

Maryland was involved in an Indian war from 1642 to 1644.*

1643. To afford themselves a better protection, while England was involved in a civil war, and they were thus left in a condition especially tempting the cupidity of other powers, the Dutch being particularly feared, the colonies of Massachusetts Bay, (including New Hampshire,) Plymouth, Connecticut and New Haven, formed a defensive alliance, under the title of "*The United Colonies of New England*." Providence and Rhode Island colonies were rejected from the union, which they desired to enter, as having no charter. This confederacy subsisted over forty years.

Gov. Winthrop records the arrival of the "Trial," before mentioned as built at Boston, from a voyage to Bilboa and Malaga. Her outward cargo consisted of fish, which sold at a good price, and the home cargo was composed of "wine, fruit, oil, iron and wool, which was a great advantage to the country, and gave encouragement to trade." So early had the trade with Spain commenced.

1644. A London ship of 24 guns, Capt. Stagg, arrived at Boston from Tenerife, with a cargo of wine. A Bristol ship, loaded with fish, lay in the harbor. Stagg, under a commission from the Parliamentarians to capture all Bristol vessels, that place being in the king's interest, made her a prize. A Bristol merchant, and others interested in the cargo, raised a mob, upon which Gov. Winthrop imprisoned them. The parties interested in the cargo petitioned for leave to test Stagg's right to seize *their* property, which being granted, the magistrates, on hearing, referred the case to the Admiralty Court, in England. The government, and people generally, were unwilling to offend the liberal party in England, with whom they strongly sympathized.

A ship built at Cambridge, and another at Boston, both sailed from the latter port, loaded with fish and pipe-staves, for the Canaries.

Connecticut and New Haven jointly bought out the settlement at Saybrook, and all the claims under Lords Say-and-Seal and Brook's former purchase.

The Rhode Island and Providence colonies were this year united as one, under a charter obtained from the Parliament.

* Some English buccaniers, in 1642, seized *Ruatan*, and several other islands on the coast of Honduras, (now the *Bay of Islands*, a dependency of England,) but the Spaniards ejected them.

The Danes settled *Santa Cruz*, or *St. Croix*, a West India island.

Some merchants of Rouen, France, attempted to establish a colony at Cayenne, in Guiana. Failed, from hostility of the natives.

Louis XIV. became king of France.

The Indian war in Virginia, which had continued in a predatory way since the outbreak of 1622, burst out in another combined effort in 1644, about three hundred whites being massacred at once. It ended in 1646, with the defeat of the Indians and an extensive cession of land.

The high price of *females* in Virginia, as before noticed, and the hearty welcome given them, invited a succession of cargoes, but the quality of the article, it appears, much deteriorated, and rather tended to injure the morals of the colony.

Negro slavery, though introduced, had not up to this time reached to any considerable extent in Virginia.*

1645. The first voyage from New England to the Newfoundland fishing grounds occurred this year. "A ship and other vessels" was sent by merchants of Boston and Charlestown; they had nearly completed their fares when they were seized by a king's ship, on account of the adherence of Massachusetts to the cause of the parliament. The loss upon the merchants was very severe.

The want of iron was very severely felt in New England, and made more sensible by the war. The general court this year granted leave to certain petitioners to erect a forge at Lynn, ten miles from Boston. It was set up, and succeeded. The same year also the general court offered a bounty and appropriated 3,000 acres of land, as an inducement to establish another forge. Farther, they offered the extraordinary grant of exclusive possession of the territory for three miles square near the forge, as the domains of the establishment, and provided that the number of such establishments might be extended to six.

The Virginia Legislature abolished the regulation for dealing by barter, and established as the standard currency of that colony, the *Spanish dollar*, or *piece of eight*, at six shillings sterling value, a considerable amount of this coin and its parts having been received in the course of trade, mostly from England, where it had been brought in plentifully by the captures of Spanish vessels.

In 1645, Clayborne, who had returned to Maryland, was the chief actor in a rebellion there against the authority of Baltimore, the object being to obtain certain political rights denied by the proprietor. The authority of the latter was suspended for about a year and a half. It is certain Maryland was far from being the paradise it is so often represented, under this proprietor. The Protestants universally declared him an odious tyrant. He was, in fact, an absolute monarch within the colony, and openly demanded from all settlers, on pain of ejection, *an oath of allegiance to him*, swearing to maintain *his* "ROYAL jurisdiction, prerogative, proprietary and dominion." Such were the precise terms used. A Legislature, constituted dependent on his favor, at some time voted him *five per cent duty on all tobacco exported from the colony*.

1646. With careful regard for the character of its staple export abroad, through which an extensive Commerce was hoped, the general court of Massachusetts appointed *Inspectors of Fish*, to attend to the quality of those put up for export.

* The Dutch West India Company, extorting money, sugar and Brazil-wood from the parts of Brazil it held, a revolt of the Portuguese followed, and war ensuing between Holland and Portugal, lasted to 1655, Portugal and the colony together expelling the Dutch from the latter. When the war opened, Brazil having been some time held by the Dutch, had 20,000 Dutch settlers, who possessed 60,000 slaves, and producing 25,000 large chests of sugar yearly. This force of settlers in New Netherlands might have made that colony permanently theirs. The first charter of the Dutch West India Company, chartered 1621, expired in 1645.

By the contract with the agent of the Saybrook establishment, it had been agreed that a certain duty on corn, biscuit, beaver and cattle, exported from the Connecticut river, should, on passing the mouth of the river, pay a certain duty for the benefit of the former proprietors of Saybrook, for ten years. Accordingly the Connecticut Legislature this year imposed a duty of 2d. per bushel on all grain thus exported, and a small duty on beaver skins, &c., for that period.

The Dutch and Indian war in the New Netherlands ended this year, in a treaty, by the mediation of the Five Nations. The Dutch had had many of their settlements destroyed, and were glad of the return of peace, and the renewal of the old trade with the Indians.*

Parliament in 1646 passed an act which, premising the benefit that had been derived to the kingdom from the increase of navigation in "the several plantations of Virginia, Bermudas, Barbadoes, and other places of America," and from the customs arising from the commodities of these plantations, enacts that as goods exported to them have hitherto paid no customs, so none except excise shall be laid on such exports for three years thereafter, except on exports to Newfoundland. All exports from the colonies are to be in British bottoms. This enactment formed the foundation of the celebrated English *Navigation Laws*.

1647. An act of the Massachusetts General Court allowed every householder within their respective towns free fishing and fowling in any of the large ponds, bays, coves and rivers, as far as salt water flowed, unless otherwise appropriated by the towns or by the general court.

This year the merchants of Massachusetts opened a Commerce with the island of *Barbadoes*, the oldest English colony in the West Indies, and with other of those islands. Barbadoes had only begun to export *sugar* the year before. Thus commenced the *West India trade* of New England, which acquired afterward so great importance, and has continued, without full interruption even in war, to this day. Cromwell subjugating Ireland, at this time, to the Puritan sway, beside driving many of the people of that country to the continent of Europe, shipped thousands of them to the English West India colonies, where they became industrious planters, and thus afforded means for the rapid enlargement of the trade with the North American colonies.

The population of Barbadoes in 1648 was 11,725 whites and 32,473 slaves; total being 54,198—more than double the numbers of any other English colony.

To repair their losses on the Delaware, the people of New Haven in 1647 built a vessel and freighted her for England, but she foundered at sea. More losses were also suffered by the merchants of Massachusetts, through a hurricane at Newfoundland.

Peter Stuyvesant, the ablest of the Dutch governors, arrived at New Amsterdam in 1647. Among his earliest acts he obtained the substitution of moderate duties on exports and imports in lieu of the burdensome tramels on trade before existing.

Under the stimulating efforts of Berkeley, many hundred acres of wheat were cultivated at this time in Virginia, and there was raised also abundance of barley, (which soon declined,) beside rye, oats and beans. Hemp and flax were grown, spun and woven to some extent. Rice had been in-

* The English in 1646 took *St. Croix*, a West India Island, from the Danes.

troduced the year before, by Berkeley, who received a half bushel of seed, from which he raised sixteen bushels of excellent rice, most of which he sowed in 1648. Some of the colonists had a good stock of bees. All the efforts of Sir William, however, could not supersede the cultivation of tobacco. The population of Virginia was 15,000 to 20,000.

By the treaty of Munster, in 1648, Holland and Spain stipulated, in relation to America, peace and neutrality for their colonies, and agreed mutually not to trade at each other's possessions.*

1650. At the middle of the seventeenth century the state of things in America was as herein described. The Spaniards and Portuguese still held undivided their fine empires in the southern part of the continent, and enjoyed a large, and to the merchants engaged, if not the governments, a lucrative trade; although the condition of the colonists, owing to the rapacious system pursued by those powers, was generally far from prosperous. Within the territory of the United States, the English had the several colonies, or "plantations" as they were called, of Massachusetts Bay, (including New Hampshire and what is now the State of Maine,) Plymouth, Connecticut, New Haven and Rhode Island, (those forming the New England confederacy,) Maryland and Virginia. A publication by Beauchamp Plantagenet, in 1648, also speaks of some English settlers very prosperously situated at Uvedale, on the Delaware. The Dutch had the colony of the New Netherlands, which comprised settlements at Manhattan Island, Albany, Schenectady, Brooklyn, Bergen, and several other places within the States of New York and New Jersey, and on Long Island, where were also some scattered English settlements attached to Connecticut. The Dutch were scattered over much the largest area, according to their numbers, devoting their attention more to *inland* as the others did to *outward* Commerce. The Swedes held the left bank of the Delaware in the present States both of Delaware and Pennsylvania. The Spaniards had a feeble settlement in Florida. The total population within the United States, was about as follows:—

Massachusetts, about.....	14,000	} 20,000
The other New England Colonies	6,000	
Virginia and Maryland.....		20,000
New Netherlands.....		2,500
New Sweden, &c.....		2,500
Total.....		42,000

The chief town in all these colonies, by far, was Boston, which had risen to a population of several thousands, and was quite actively engaged in trade. New Amsterdam had, probably, about 800 inhabitants.

The trade of New England, we have seen, beside the communication between the different colonies, extended to Great Britain, to Spain and the Canary Islands, and to the English West Indies. In the fishing voyages to Newfoundland, they had also commenced trading with the settlers there, and with the French at Acadia, and were beginning an intercourse, though forbidden by Spain, with her West India Islands. The great staple of all this trade was fish, aided by a very small amount of surplus products of the soil, pipe-staves, etc. A great drawback on the internal trade of these

* In 1648 the Dutch settled Tortola, a West India Island. In 1649 a Frenchman, named Bolasseret, purchased of the Antilles Company of France, the islands of Guadeloupe, Mariegalante, and some other minor islands, for 63,000 livres—about \$11,350. Small establishments were effected at Mariegalante and St. Bartholomews.

colonies was the want of money. Till ten years later than this time, they were almost entirely without gold and silver, using as they best could, Indian corn, wheat, rye, peas, fish, beaver skins, and wampum, in their place. The two latter were the articles most readily exchangeable, and preserving the most uniform value. Wampum was a money used by the Indians, made of shells, and was readily received by them in exchange for skins. Most of the taxes were paid in grain and other rough produce of the soil, or cattle, so that the treasury consisted of a set of store-houses and barns, and the government was obliged to be both a merchant and a drover. The salaries of the public officers, of clergymen, teachers, &c., were paid in grain, beaver, &c., with a little silver to provide them with clothes and such necessary articles as had to be imported.

The prices of the leading agricultural products in Massachusetts, in 1650, were as follows:—wheat, per bushel, 5s. sterling; corn, 3s.; barley, 5s. 6d.; peas, 4s.

The trade of Virginia and Maryland was with England, almost exclusively, and tobacco was in a yet greater degree the lone staple of their Commerce, than was fish of that of New England. It had formed, for many years, the sole currency of Virginia, but of late, Spanish silver, which had been made somewhat plentiful in Britain from the captures of Spanish vessels, and by trade, had flowed in to a sufficient extent to afford the basis of a metallic currency, which had accordingly been established by law. Tobacco was still the currency of Maryland.

The Commerce of the Dutch colony extended to Holland, to Africa, the Dutch West India Islands, and to some extent to the neighboring English Colonies, resting almost entirely upon the internal fur trade with the Indians. It is probable this colony had paid better to those engaged in its formation and early support, than any other yet established within the United States. But it was a fatal policy of the Dutch West India Company, that its advancement was so much neglected, while the English Colonies were growing up so rapidly around it. From the first, that company had been engrossed by the more tempting object of acquiring Brazil, and, if possible, Peru. Some success had crowned their efforts in the former, and thither they encouraged the great stream of Dutch emigration; but failing to retain their hold, Brazil proved to them only an ignis fatuus luring them away from a certain empire in North America. Gov. Stuyvesant was obliged in 1650, in order to insure the New Netherlands against continued encroachments from Connecticut, to consent to a treaty making large concessions to that colony, and yielding, among other claims, nearly all of Long Island. Yet this surrender, as concentrating their efforts, might have occasioned no real damage, had the Dutch government and the proprietary association corrected the former error in their policy toward this colony.

The Swedish colony was agricultural and commercial, and was the object of much care and consideration by the home government, to which it was devotedly attached. By the rapid spread of its settlements along the Delaware, its prosperity is indicated, as well as its peaceful trading relations with the Indians.

The settlement in Florida was lost sight of by the Spanish government, in the gigantic concerns of its other American colonies, and by its separation from the plantations of the other powers within the United States, was unnoticed by them. All its connections were with the Spanish West Indies.

The commonwealth had just been established in England, and toward the New England colonies, which had zealously sided with the popular party from the outset, the new government professed, and throughout its whole duration really exhibited, a very favorable disposition. While Cromwell lived they were secure from even the apprehension of any of those repressive acts, which had the reign of Charles continued, his growing jealousy would have prompted him to adopt. Without the fear of any enemies at home or abroad, the period of the Republic was to them a season of uninterrupted peace, prosperity, and enlargement, albeit the privileges secured to the Puritans in England put nearly a complete stop to the emigration of that sect, before going on, toward New England.

Lord Baltimore, also, while the republican party was in power, assumed the coat of a liberal, and deposed his governor for proclaiming Charles II., putting a republican and a protestant in his place. So far did he go, that the exiled prince denounced him as one of the traitors. He abated also so far of his monarchical claims as to sanction an act passed by the Maryland legislature, setting up a new constitution, which assumed certain rights for the people, and, among the rest, prohibited all taxation, as heretofore practiced, against the consent of the people. But the course dictated by policy did not save to Baltimore, as intended, the large moiety remaining of the unrepublican system he had established in his colony; and the depth of his liberality he proved on the restoration of Charles II., by pleading to that monarch the hypocrisy of his former professions, and alleging them as the dictate merely of necessity, otherwise, of convenience.

The other English colonies, Virginia, with the West India Islands, Barbadoes, Antigua, and the Bermudas, adhering openly to the royal cause, even after the commonwealth was established, the Long Parliament in 1650, passed an ordinance declaring "that colonies planted at the cost of and settled by the people and by the authority of this nation, are and ought to be subordinate to and dependent upon England; that they ever have been and ought to be subject to such laws and regulations as are or shall be made by the parliament." The acts of rebellion committed by Virginia were then set forth, and the people of that colony concerned in these acts were declared "notorious robbers and traitors;" *all intercourse* with the colony was forbidden, and it was ordered that a fleet should be sent to reduce them to obedience. All merchant ships of England, as well as the ships of the government, were authorized to seize on the ships and merchandise of those rebellious inhabitants. This act, of course, until the adjustment of the difficulty, must have caused nearly or quite a total interruption of the outward trade of the colony. The same statute was directed also against the several islands named as in companionship with Virginia in sentiments of friendliness to royalty.

The Commerce of the colonies had attained a sufficient magnitude to be thought worthy of the regulative attention of the English government, and thence the passage of the act before alluded to, in 1646, forming the basis of the navigation acts. This enactment was, however, regarded as favorable rather than otherwise to the colonial trade. It was intended to insure them the English market, and to afford a guaranty to them that for the time stipulated their Commerce should be as free of customs taxes as hitherto it had been—in which latter provision there might have been some intimation of an intention on the part of the preceding government to have put the colonial trade under systematic taxation.

Although the emigration to these colonies was small after the commencement of the civil war in England, yet the establishment of the commonwealth was followed by a large movement from another portion of the empire, namely, Ireland, though directed to the British Colonies in the West Indies, instead of the continental plantations. It was better, undoubtedly, that it did take that direction. The North American Colonies were not then prepared to receive that new tide. In their yet comparatively weak condition, and with the peculiar views which had mainly influenced their original founders, and which were still to a large extent preserved, the large migration from Ireland would have certainly been the occasion of religious collision, and very likely of civil war in the colonies, as did actually occur in Maryland from a similar cause. These unavoidable altercations would have greatly affected the prosperity of the colonies, and might have changed their entire destiny. Of no outward place, however, could the increase of population, and the consequent development of resource, be so beneficial to them as in the West India Islands. The development thus effected in this quarter vastly increased the commercial prosperity of the continental colonies, and rapidly hastened their growth in wealth, in numbers, and in political importance, and afforded them means of extending their Commerce to other parts of the world.*

With regard to the policies pursued by the several colonizing powers of Europe toward their American dependencies, that of England, even under the monarchy, with whatever jealousies and selfish dispositions were exhibited, was far more liberal and wise than that of either of its competitors. The course of the Dutch was exclusive, oppressive, and, toward the interests of the dependency, neglectful. That of France was yet more illiberal and pernicious. Everything was within the grasp of overbearing monopolies, whose rapacious desires were the inflexible law over the settlements. In the excess of their cupidity, these associations ruined even their own interests. Like the Dutch, their principal effort in North America was directed toward the traffic with the natives; but from the combined fault, doubtless, of the proprietary and the colonists, they had neither of them any better success, nor indeed, considering the extent of their respective establishments, as good success as the English in conciliating the good will of and maintaining peaceful intercourse with the Indians. The reverse of this has been asserted of the French, but we see nothing to justify that opinion, and the long war with the Iroquois is, of itself, a balance to all the Indian wars of the early English colonists, lasting as it did over twenty years. The English government had granted its colonies unexampled political privileges—for, notwithstanding the complaints sometimes made by the colonists, this truth must be admitted. No colonizing power of modern times had ever shown a tithe of the favor to its dependencies that had been freely accorded by the English monarchy. The proprietary companies were, except in the first instance,

* The English at this time, as we have noticed, were possessed in the West Indies of Barbadoes, the most populous of all their colonies, Antigua, and Montserrat, beside the Bermuda Islands. These colonies had trade with Britain, the continental colonies, the Spanish West Indies, and Mexico, obtaining from these latter gold and silver for produce. The Spaniards, in 1650, expelled the English from St. Croix, and laid it waste.

The French had Guadaloupe, Martinico, St. Bartholomews, Mariegalante, &c. In 1650 a Frenchman bought St. Lucia, Granada, and the little Granadas, (probably of Boisset,) for 60,000 livres, (\$10,000,) and formed settlements in them.

The Spaniards possessed Hayti, Cuba, Jamaica, Porto Rico, Trinidad, &c.

The Dutch had Curacao, Guayama, St. Eustatia, Tortola, and half of St. Martins.

The other islands of the West Indies were mostly unoccupied yet.

in regard to Virginia, and in the case of Maryland, delegated but few powers, and those held in careful restraint by the crown. Such charters as those given to Massachusetts and the other New England Colonies, giving them in effect the entire right of self-government, leaving them free of taxation, except so far as imposed by themselves for their own benefit, may be regarded as wonders of liberality for that time, and could have been conceded only from an earnest desire to establish a colonial empire in America, and a good appreciation of the difficulties of colonization there. The repeated and distressing failures of Gilbert, Raleigh, and the several companies organized for effecting settlement within America, were no doubt the means of purchasing these liberal constitutions, and thus, though barren in one aspect, had a most potential and salutary influence on the success of the colonies afterward established. Political oppressions were afterward felt, but up to this time there had been very little to complain of—and even those which were endured from the re-established monarchy were but comparatively vexatious, being light, indeed, in contrast with the tyranny inflicted by the Spaniards, and by the French also, upon their colonies. The proprietor of Maryland, indeed, had something of the character of a monarch over his province, but this colony stood out as an exception to the other English plantations—and even this grant, from a Protestant monarch to a Catholic subject, ceding to the latter even a portion of his own sovereignty, is an instance of real liberality, which was not withdrawn even when the power so yielded was exercised in open contravention of the wishes of the donor.

With regard to the proprietary companies by which several of the colonies were planted, the latter were as little under their control as they were subject to that of the crown. These companies, we have seen, although at first granted exclusive rights of trade, were unable to maintain their monopoly. The seas were made free, the colonists held intercourse with whom they listed, adventuring freely wherever other English subjects might go—and if they deemed a profit might be obtained by Commerce with other and interdicted places, no matter by whom interdicted, thither, if practicable, they went.

Such was the state of things at the middle of the Seventeenth Century, and under such a condition had the English Colonies in America attained the position we have displayed. Within the region north of Mexico the English power was predominant, far over that of all other nations. From neither the weak colonies of France, of Holland, of Sweden, or of Spain therein existing, so far as their own power was concerned, had the English colonists, if left to themselves, anything to fear. To the most casual observation it must have been perfectly apparent, that the well-established foundation of great political and commercial communities, of thorough English characteristics, had been formed; and that unless a greatly superior energy and wisdom were employed by the rival powers to anything they had yet displayed in their attempts here, or unless the quality of English colonial policy should wretchedly deteriorate, this vast segment of the continent must be mainly, or entirely, the ir retrievable possession of Britain, occupied by a twin empire, which would make for her, and for ages secure, the position of the first power of the earth in Commerce, in wealth, and in political grandeur.

Art. II.—MERCANTILE BIOGRAPHY :

THE LATE SAMUEL APPLETON, ESQ.

SAMUEL APPLETON was the oldest member of a family whose name, during the last half century, has been intimately associated with the prosperity of Boston, and with all of its most important interests. He himself might have been singled out as the model of what a merchant should be. Alike high-minded in gaining and public spirited in using his means—in his industry and liberal enterprise, his scrupulous uprightness and large beneficence, he was one of the most marked men of a profession which includes within its ranks so much of the energy, enterprise, and talent of New England.

Mr. Appleton was a native of New Ipswich, N. H., and was born June 22, 1766. He commenced life with no advantages, except the inestimable one of being trained in childhood in the home of judicious and excellent parents. His father, Dea. Isaac Appleton, was one of the most respected citizens of New Ipswich, but, alike all his neighbors, was subject to the deprivations and hardships of what then was a newly settled country.

In a family of twelve brothers and sisters, Samuel was the third. Except such instruction as he received at home, all his opportunities of education were confined to a few interrupted weeks, each year, from the age of ten to sixteen, in the district school. He, however, made such good use of his opportunities that, at seventeen, he was himself selected to teach a school, and was so successful that during the succeeding winters, and so long as he was willing to engage in the office of teaching, his services were in great request in his own and in the neighboring towns. To the day of his death he took the greatest delight in recalling the scenes, the friendships, and the labors of these seasons of school keeping, when the teacher often had scholars older than himself; when he was sometimes obliged to be a hard student at home that he might keep in advance of his pupils at school, and when his sovereignty over the young republicans about him required the exercise of prudence and self-control as well as vigor.

At twenty-two years of age he joined a party of young men in settling a township in Maine; the conditions being that they should have each alternate lot, provided they would build a house, and clear up a certain number of acres. In this occupation two summers were employed, and the various experiences of frontier life, the hardships encountered with the hopeful hearts of youth, and the expedients by means of which difficulties were overcome, were the subject of much amusement in after years. But labor on a farm was not to his taste. It was evident that his special gift was not for handling the axe and guiding the plough. He had an early desire to become a merchant, and, the way opening for acting out this inclination, he entered into business in the country; first, at Ashburnham, in company with Col. Jewett, and afterwards at New Ipswich, with Charles Barrett, Esq. These fields, however, were too narrow for his ambition. In 1794, at the age of 28, he established himself as a merchant in Boston, and from that time his career was one of uninterrupted and honorable prosperity and usefulness. In 1799 he visited England, and having formed a partnership with his younger brother, Hon. Nathan Appleton, he was for many years engaged very extensively in the importation of English goods. At a later period he was largely interested in the cotton manufacture, which, with a wise foresight

of the future industrial wants of the country, had been introduced through the agency of his brother, acting in connection with two or three associates, first at Waltham, and afterwards at Lowell. As he grew older, he gradually withdrew from business, and at length retired from any active participation in it. But he retired from business only to give his thoughts more exclusively to objects of kindness, charity, and public utility.

One of the beautiful traits of his character was his strong attachment for everything connected with his early life. He never forgot his birthplace; and its interests were his interests. In any matter relating to its general welfare, he would have been very sorry if the people of his native town had forgotten to ask him for his aid. Among other things, the academy, which was largely indebted to his liberality for the funds which have placed it on a permanent foundation, will be for him a lasting memorial. His early friends never lost their hold on his interest, and there was no part of his life which he took such pleasure in recalling as he did the scenes and labors and struggles of his youth. One of the sure tests of an unspoiled heart—he carried through life the affections, the simple tastes, and the cheerful, hopeful feelings of his earliest years.

A stranger on seeing him, we think, would have been first struck by his apparent simplicity and open-hearted honesty. It was in his manner, in his look, and in the tones of his voice. There was no mistaking it. He was an honest man. Without subterfuge or disguise, incapable of anything indirect or underhanded, he had no concealments of his own, and anything in the form of a secret was to him a trouble and a burden. He knew of but one way of speaking, and that was, to say straight on, the truth. It was a principle grown into a necessity of his moral life. He did not know what else to say. It might be difficult to utter it, but he really could not help it. And so out of the simplicity of his nature his yea was yea, and his nay, nay. This was allied with the kindest and tenderest feelings. No one felt more pain in giving pain to another. But though he might be kind, and gentle, and tender, he could not help being honest. He was himself so thoroughly upright that it was hard for him to doubt the honesty of other men, and, as is often the case, men were really to him what he expected them to be. Said the writer of this notice to him—and the answer threw light alike on his own character and on the character of merchants generally—"You have been long engaged in business, under a great variety of circumstances, and in different countries; what is your opinion in regard to the honesty of mankind?" "Very favorable;" he replied, "Very generally I think they mean to be honest. I have never in my life met with more than three or four cases in which I thought a man intended to be dishonest in dealing with me."

A striking evidence of his character, and of the way in which he himself was regarded, occurred on the only occasion during his life when he was sued. About the year 1820, a merchant tailor, named Endicot, died, leaving a residue of his estate to a Baptist society. Among his papers was a note signed by Samuel Appleton, and indorsed by Ducoster & Marshall, for a few hundred dollars. The committee of the society called on Mr. Appleton for payment. The handwriting was so very like his that it was impossible to distinguish one from the other; but he refused to pay it, declaring it to be, in spite of the resemblance, a forgery. A suit was brought on the note, which was in fact outlawed. He would not, however, allow any plea of this kind to be made, but steadily denied the signature. As the indorse-

ment was evidently genuine, and no other person of the same name was known, the whole matter was enveloped in mystery. This was increased by the fact that he had had dealings with the house of Ducoster & Marshall, as appeared by his books, though nothing was found in them to confirm this note. On the trial, his brother was called as one of the witnesses. He testified that he could not distinguish the signature from Mr. Appleton's handwriting; but that, as he himself had kept the books at the time, and his brother's notes were always paid when due, and there was no trace of such a note, it could not be genuine. Notwithstanding this admitted resemblance of the handwriting, and notwithstanding the charge of the judge was rather against the defendant, the jury found a verdict in his favor. Mr. D. Ellis was foreman, and he stated the verdict was founded on the fact that the jury was quite sure that Mr. Appleton would not dispute the payment of the note, except on the certainty that he did not owe it.

Mr. Appleton, however, was not satisfied to leave the matter here, if it were possible to unravel the mystery. Some years after he was in Italy, and went to Naples, where Mr. Degen at that time resided—the gentleman who was assignee of Ducoster and Marshall, and had made the endorsement in their behalf. His first step on landing was, not to visit any of the wonders of nature or art, but to search out Mr. D., who, in answer to his inquiries, stated that he perfectly well recollected the circumstance of there being such a note, but that the signer of the note was a ship-master of the same name, who resided in Portland, and who had been dead for some years. Besides his memory of the event, he had at his country-house the books of the firm, and on examining them they were found to confirm entirely Mr. Appleton's convictions, and to show the reasonableness of the confidence placed by his neighbors and fellow-citizens in his accuracy and integrity.

Mr. A. was the artificer of his own fortune. He was—what so many who are described as such are not—essentially a self-made man. From early youth he had nothing on which to rely, but his own resources of mind and character. The friends whom he never failed to find, and of whom no man had more, were attracted to him by his own merits. No one owed less in early life to what is termed good fortune. Every advancing step was the legitimate result of preceding self-denial, foresight, integrity, and cheerful labor. A full account of his early career would be a hardly less instructive one to young men than that of Franklin. Nothing could furnish a better commentary on the selfish folly of those who think that they do well to be angry with the world, because it does not load them with prosperity before they have done anything to deserve it. He was an accomplished merchant, but his prosperity, instead of being accidental, was owing to years of persevering industry, to his uprightness, to a singularly quick perception of character, and to a native good sense and soundness of judgment which would have made him successful in any vocation that he might have chosen.

He doubtless had the New England love of success in what he undertook. But there were things which he valued more than success. He valued a liberal heart in his own bosom, and an unrepublishing conscience, more than he did money. Mammon was never his god, but his servant. His gains had on them no dark spots. In recalling the early years of mercantile life, when habits were forming, and temptations to one struggling into business with limited means were many, it gratified him to remember that he never was sued, and during that time had never instituted a suit against any one: that he made very few bad debts; that he never lost a good customer, and

that of the many orders given him to be filled very much at his own discretion, the case scarcely occurred in which any complaint ever reached his ear of the manner in which it had been executed. He never sought large profits; he would not make money out of other men's necessities, and throughout life, carrying out to the letter his notions of obedience to the law, he would never receive more than the legal rate of interest for what he had loaned. He accumulated a fortune because he was a sagacious and accomplished man of business, and not because of any grasping passion for accumulation. On the contrary, instead of the love of money growing with his years, during the latter part of life he systematically limited its increase. Among his papers is one dated 1823, containing some resolutions which he hoped to carry out with more fidelity than he had done before. Among them, he says—"I promise, during the following year, to spend the whole of my income, either in frivolity, amusement, public utility, or benevolence." Although the last object is introduced so casually, those who were acquainted with him will understand how large a place it held in his thoughts. Another similar paper is found for 1828, in which, after saying in general terms that he has observed men, as they have grown old in years, growing anxious about property till they have seemed to think of little else—and wishing to avoid that state of mind, he promises that during the ensuing year he will spend the whole of his income; making, however, with the careful forethought of one who meant to perform what he resolved, the single reservation of so large a part of the dividends on his manufacturing stocks as should be required to pay any new assessments. How large and liberal were his ideas of one's duty to promote the welfare of others, is seen in the fact that the amount which he gave away during his life was scarcely less than what he had retained for himself.

His relations with his kindred were always of the most interesting kind. Many of his brothers and sisters had large families, and among their children, as a matter of course, was every variety of fortune. Having no children of his own, he adopted into the circle of his affections the children of his brothers and sisters; and during the latter years of his life, no single thing engrossed so much of his thoughts, as their interest and happiness.

In 1819 he married Mrs. Mary Gore. This is no place in which to speak of domestic life, but it may be said that while happy in so many other things, he deemed himself to have been signally blessed in this relation. There never was a more sunshiny home; and for the sunshine which filled it, it was his happiness to feel that he was indebted to the character and affection of the wife whom he loved.

It would be difficult to imagine a more beautiful old age. During its last years he was confined very much to his room and to his chair; but those who were dearest to him were always near him. His room was the great center of domestic attraction and enjoyment. His heart was so warm, and fresh, and sympathetic, that others felt that their pleasures were doubled by his participation in them; and, on the contrary, he could never enjoy anything alone. The words of Ben Jonson described his habitual feeling:—

"That is but half a joy, is all our own."

On any afternoon that you might visit him, you were likely to find around him some of those who in former years had been engaged with him in business, or his kindred, or the young children of his old friends, for his affectionate nature drew the young to him not less than those who were more

advanced; and there, too, you met a constant succession of persons who sought his aid for public objects or private charities. To consider and meet these calls was, indeed, the great work of his later years. He held his fortune as a means of usefulness, and there was scarcely a day in the year in which he did not contribute more or less to some benevolent object. He of course exercised his own judgment as to whether he would give or not give, and he carried into his works of benevolence the same good sense and clearness of mind which had characterized him as a merchant; but he would have taken it unkindly if, in any enterprise for the public good, or any purpose of private charity, he had been overlooked by his friends. It is sometimes an ungracious task to ask men to contribute money; but Mr. Appleton, whether he saw fit to give or to decline giving, made you understand that he considered that you had done him a favor in letting him have the opportunity. He not only gave with no grudging hand, but he was very likely to add that if, after applying to others, there should still be a deficiency, he would like to be called on again.

During the latter part of his life, he made it a rule to spend his whole income every year; and there was scarcely any public enterprise within that period, or any work of utility, or any charitable institution, or any effort to promote education in the city of Boston, to which he was not a large contributor. Nor were his benefactions confined to the city of his home; but throughout New England his name will be permanently connected with the charitable, educational and religious institutions which received aid from his ready and large-hearted munificence.

But that which characterized his old age more than anything else, was a constantly growing interest in the welfare of the poor. He regularly placed large sums in the hands of physicians and others who were in the way of seeing those in destitution, and on whose good sense and good feeling he relied, to be distributed as their judgment should dictate. He could not bear to think that any one, whom he could relieve, should suffer from want. It was Cecil, we think, who said that he always thought of the world as divided into two heaps, one of happiness and the other of misery, and that it was his purpose to take something from the latter, and to add something every day to the former. No one ever acted more habitually on this idea than Mr. Appleton. With the habits and decision brought out of a struggling and energetic manhood, there were many things he could resist: but a poor child, or a poor man, he could not resist. He could not resist any tale of want, and though uttered in a whisper, he heard it above all the noise of the world.

Those were the only unsatisfactory days to him, in which he had not done something to promote some one's welfare, or to relieve some one's distress. And all this was done so modestly, so kindly, so much as if he were receiving a favor, that the manner doubled its value. He gave money to the poor in such a way that they gave him back their hearts. He bore all his faculties so meekly, his manners were characterized by such an inbred courtesy, and his good deeds were so simple and unalloyed, that they awakened in all around him kind and friendly feelings. It is said of Raphael that the influence of his genial and kindly character was such, that "the painters who worked around him lived in perfect harmony, as if all bad feeling were extinguished in his presence, and every base, unworthy thought had passed away from their minds." So Mr. A.'s character seemed to create around him a sphere of just thoughts and kind affections.

His religious views and feelings partook of the simplicity of his general character. Though he had decided opinions, he never took any strong interest in questions of controversial theology. His experience in life had taught him that good men were confined to no theological party, and it was his conviction that the fundamental principles of religion, in spite of minor differences, were received by all sects. His nature was not speculative but practical, and religion with him took a practical form. He thought little of the words and much of the substance. Better words to describe him, as he appeared in his habitual course, could hardly be chosen, than those in which the prophet gives the comprehensive test of a right life:—"What doth the Lord require of thee, but to do justly, to love mercy, and to walk humbly before thy God." He had the trusting heart of a child; and the practical form which his faith in a spiritual life assumed was touchingly illustrated in an incident that occurred during the year preceding his own death. A favorite nephew, to whom he had bequeathed in his will a large proportional amount of his estate, died before him, and by the terms of the will, a half-sister, between whom and Mr. A. there was no blood relationship, became entitled to these bequests. The executor called Mr. Appleton's attention to the fact, thinking that he might wish to make some change in the disposition of his property. After taking the subject into full consideration, his reply was, "If in the other world there is any knowledge of what is done in this, I should not like to have my nephew, whom I so loved and trusted, find that my first act, on learning his death, is the revocation or curtailment of a bequest made in his favor, and which, if he had survived me, would have eventually benefited her who was nearest and dearest to him. The will must stand as it is."

He died without issue, at his residence in Boston, July 12, 1853, having just entered on the eighty-eighth year of his age. His death was as tranquil as his life. He had always dreaded a lingering dissolution, and his desire that the last hour might come suddenly was granted. On the last morning of his life he enjoyed his usual health. During the day he had suffered some pain and uneasiness, but the remedies applied had relieved him, and he said, "I will now try to sleep." He composed himself for this purpose, and sunk into slumber. In a few moments, however, Mrs. Appleton was alarmed by his louder breathing; she ran to his bedside and summoned an attendant. He was lying in the same attitude of repose. He was sleeping, but "the sleep that had fallen upon him so gently was the sleep of death!"

His mind retained its vigor and clearness to the last, and up to the closing hours of his life, he had been employed on thoughts and plans of beneficence. The sinking sun went down through a twilight over which collected all the beauty of the day.

"Sure the last end
Of the good man is peace. How calm his exit!
Night dews fall not more calmly on the ground,
Nor weary, worn-out winds expire so soft."

Mr. Appleton was one of those men who not only give a character to the community in which they live, but who create its character. His enterprise, his great soundness of judgment, his stainless integrity, and his liberality, made him one of those standards of character by which men around measure themselves and others. Such men raise the general average of character throughout the community. Il liberal customs and underhanded methods of business are shamed away from their presence. The young

honor and imitate, and those who are older take a heartier interest in whatever relates to the general good. We are accustomed to speak of the benevolent acts of such a man, but infinitely greater than the immediate good done to the recipients of the charity is the general feeling of liberality which such acts awaken and keep alive in the community. Three men, near neighbors, intimate friends, associated much together in common pursuits, died nearly together: Mr. Amos Lawrence, Mr. Robert G. Shaw, and Mr. Appleton. Without detracting from the merits of others, it cannot be doubted that these men stood second to none in their liberality towards all objects that had a bearing on the general welfare, and that any reputation which Boston may have was owing, in at least a full proportion, to their character. But whatever of good they may have done to individuals or institutions, the greatest good came from the modest, unpretending uprightness and liberality of their lives, which showed that men might accumulate money, and yet value it for its true uses; which gave the visible proof that successful labors did not require the drying up of the heart, and which established a standard of large and wise beneficence. A few accomplished and successful men of business, if they were at the same time selfish and sordid, will lower the whole moral feeling of the community in which they live. And, on the contrary, if right-minded, generous, just, living for others as well as themselves, they elevate the whole moral character of business life.

Samuel Appleton left a fortune of something over a million of dollars. By his will he gave to his widow property valued at two hundred thousand dollars. He left to his executors—Hon. Nathan Appleton, Wm. Appleton, and Nath. A. Bowditch—the sum of two hundred thousand dollars, “to be by them applied, disposed of, and distributed, for scientific, literary, religious, or charitable purposes.” The residue is distributed amongst the children and grandchildren of his brothers and sisters.

There are many who are liberal after their death, who give wisely, perhaps, that which they can no longer retain. Mr. Appleton will be remembered as one who all his days made use of prosperity to promote the welfare of others, whose heart grew liberal and whose hand was opened wider as his means increased; and whose unostentatious course was, from the beginning like that of a stream through the valley, giving fertility to the whole region through which it flows, and like that too, hiding itself under the very verdure which it has nourished. He has passed from this world, followed by kind, affectionate, and grateful memories; and at that day, whose inquisition all may fear, and when the best may shrink from answering for themselves, we may believe that he shall be one of that number—most blessed—who shall have many to bear witness for them—one of those of whom the poor shall say “He relieved our necessities,” and the naked, “He clothed us;” and the sick and in prison, “He visited us;” and the orphan, the friendless, and the forsaken, “When we thought ourselves forgotten by man, by him we were remembered.”

ART. III.—TRADE AND COMMERCE OF BUFFALO IN 1853.

We have published in former volumes of the *Merchants' Magazine* annual statements of the Trade and Commerce of New Orleans, Cincinnati, St. Louis, Baltimore and Chicago, &c., and in our number for March, 1853, we published a similar annual statement of Buffalo for the year 1852, it being the first year that a full review of every department of the Commerce and industry of that city had been prepared and published. We have now the pleasure of laying before our readers the Second Annual Statement of the Trade and Commerce of Buffalo for 1853, together with a comprehensive review of the general business of Buffalo, including its progress in improvements and manufactures, also the state of trade during the season. It was prepared by JOHN J. HENDERSON, Esq., the Commercial Editor of the *Buffalo Republic*, who in a note to the editor of this magazine says—"You will find the inclosed correct and reliable; it has been submitted by me to many intelligent merchants, who have approved of it." We may add that we have entire confidence in the general correctness of Mr. Henderson's statements, and we regard his account of the Commerce of Buffalo, as exhibited in the following pages, as a most valuable contribution to the commercial history and statistics of an important part of our country, and in every way worthy of the space it occupies in the *Merchants' Magazine*.

STATEMENT OF THE TRADE AND COMMERCE OF BUFFALO FOR 1853; TOGETHER WITH A BRIEF REVIEW OF THE GENERAL BUSINESS OF THE CITY—ITS PROGRESS IN IMPROVEMENTS AND MANUFACTURES—ALSO THE STATE OF TRADE DURING THE SEASON, AS REVISED AND CORRECTED FOR THE "MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE."

In 1852 an act was passed by the Legislature of this State, "to amend the charter of the city of Buffalo," and authorized the appointment of a number of gentlemen to form a convention to revise the said charter. That convention assembled in the summer of 1852, and among other things extended the limits of the city by including within them the town of Black Rock. The charter, as agreed upon by that convention, was submitted to the people at the general election in November, and having been approved of, was returned to the Legislature in 1853, and became a law. That law went into operation on the 1st of January, 1854. By it they have an entirely different city government. The number of wards have been increased from five to thirteen, and the number of Aldermen from ten to twenty-six. Instead of the Mayor presiding at the Board, that body elect a President. Other offices have been created, and other beneficial changes made to keep pace with our rapidly growing and extending city.

The population of Buffalo is now put down at 75 or 80,000, and from tables prepared by the Equalizing Committee of the Board of Supervisors, we gather the following facts relative to our new city—its extent and its valuation. The number of acres admitted within the city limits by the annexation of Black Rock is 23,710. The number of acres within the old city limits is not given, but we believe it is not far from 1,800. The assessor's valuation of real estate in the new city is \$20,063,045, of which Black Rock furnishes \$3,362,105. The valuation of this property, as it is equalized by the committee, is set down at \$24,681,497, of which Black Rock has \$3,205,912. The value of the personal estate is estimated at \$2,774,255, of which Black Rock has \$75,600. The total amount of real and personal estate as equalized, is fixed at \$27,455,752, of which Black Rock is rated \$3,281,512. Some idea of the increasing prosperity of Buffalo, and its resources yet undeveloped, may be gathered from the above statistics which are compiled from official tables.

Strangers, and even many of the citizens, would be surprised to see the numerous works of improvement going on, and that have been completed during the past year. Large numbers of sewers have been laid, and numerous

streets graded and paved. The paving which has been done, has been of a superior character, and will prove of great advantage to the city. There has also been a large amount of flagging and plank walks constructed on the outer streets, and gas and water pipes have been laid down in almost every direction. As for building, we do not remember a year when so many elegant structures for business and family occupation have been erected as the past. A destructive fire which occurred early in the summer swept away a large number of wooden buildings in that portion of Buffalo lying between the canal and the creek, known as the "infected district." This part of the city is wanted for business purposes, and is now being rapidly built up with substantial brick stores and dwellings. Large blocks, depots, hotels, warehouses and stores, are going up in every direction, on the creek, canal, and on almost every street. The old market-house and City Hall, on what is termed the terrace, have fallen victims to the spirit of improvement, and have been torn down. In lieu of these edifices, the Common Council have purchased a lot three hundred and forty-seven feet square on Franklin and Eagle streets. Its entire cost was \$80,000. City buildings are already located upon the premises, the structures of which, though not designed as permanent, are very creditable to the taste of the projectors. A large and convenient City Hall will be erected on the grounds at no distant day. A new and commodious public market building has been erected during the year on Michigan street, and some \$50,000 has also been appropriated for the purchase of two other locations, on which are to be erected public markets. Many residences, of a superior order as to elegance and commodiousness, are going up on every hand. That portion of Buffalo lying in rear of the water-works, which but some two or three years since was scarcely occupied for residences, is being rapidly spread over with snug little cottages, erected by day laborers and artisans. Land in that portion of the city has risen rapidly in value within the past year. It is another evidence of the increasing prosperity and speedy growth of the city. Nor is this destined to be an ephemeral thrift. Some three hundred dwellings will be built in that neighborhood during the coming summer by mechanics, who have bought the land on which they are to be erected at low rates, and intend to make them their homes. The same may be said of other outskirts of the city. At the Hydraulics, on the flats, and in fact throughout our city everywhere, permanent improvements are going on. This, of course, will add very materially to the value of real estate, and advance the growth of Buffalo.

The harbor of Buffalo, which is perfectly easy of access in all weathers, is very far from being adequate to the Commerce of the place, and is often so much obstructed by small craft and canal boats, especially when forced in suddenly by stress of weather, that ingress or egress is a matter not easily or readily effected. This has been the case more particularly during the past season, owing to the large increase in our lake marine, and the fact of so many large steamers entering our harbor daily. To relieve this pressure in part, a ship canal has been cut during the past summer, connecting the creek with the slip canal. More than this, however, is required to meet the demands of the large and daily increasing business of this port.

GENERAL STATE OF TRADE.

The business on the docks, by which we mean the buying and selling of produce, opened in the spring somewhat languidly, owing to a combination of unpropitious circumstances. The unfavorable state of the market in England in the early part of the spring, and which continued into the summer, served to depress our market for breadstuffs; while the confidence of holders strengthened by a belief in the scantiness of the supply, materially checked operations. Navigation upon the lakes was unobstructed at an early date, some two weeks prior to the opening of the canal, but the receipts during that time were not large. After the 20th April, the day upon which business was resumed on the canal, a series of interruptions occurred, owing to the breaks in the works, and freights in consequence ruled high and irregular. Rival routes on every side were competing for the trade, which legitimately belonged to the canals of New York. The Welland and Oswego Canals, and the Ogdensburgh and Cape Vincent

Railroads on the one side, and the New York and Erie Railroad and the southern routes on the other, were exerting all their energies to draw trade from the Erie Canal, and they were in a great measure successful, owing to the almost incessant interruption on the western division of the canal. One break was scarcely announced before information of another was received, and despite the energy and enterprise of forwarders, the increase of boats and the efforts of the business community, a paralysis appeared to have stricken this vast limb of commerce, and to have laid upon it suddenly in all its vigor the infirmities of a premature old age. The mischief entailed upon all classes by these untoward events can scarcely be calculated. The producer of the West, the commission merchant in the interior, the forwarder and the exporter were all sufferers, and our own city and State was more injured than any class of individuals. All these circumstances combined served to check business on the docks, and an unnatural dullness existed. Such a state of things, however, we have good reason to believe, will not occur again. The canals have fallen into the management of other hands, men at least who profess to be their friends, and from present appearances, if we can judge from what has already been done towards the enlargement, we may safely count upon the speedy completion of these great State works, and that during the coming season they will be kept in perfect order. From the commencement of navigation up to June, prices ruled considerably higher than for the same period during the year previous, say from 25 a 50 cents per barrel on flour, 15 a 20 cents per bushel on wheat, and 4 a 6 cents per bushel on corn. There was every disposition on the part of speculators to operate, but the unsettled condition of freights consequent on the frequent interruption of canal navigation kept them out of the market. After the close of the month of May interruptions were less frequent, and a better condition of affairs was apparent with a revival in the market.

Buffalo, as a market for the disposal of every description of produce, offers better inducements to Western merchants than any other port on the Lakes. It is a fact that prices of flour and grain have ruled comparatively higher in the Buffalo market throughout the entire season than in New York. By this we mean, that if we take, for instance, the price of a barrel of flour here, or of a bushel of wheat or corn, and add to it the freight by canal or railroad, insurance, commissions, and other incidental expenses, the margin will be found in favor of the Buffalo market. Holders who have disposed of their consignments here have as a general thing, done better than those who have shipped, and several instances have come under our observation where a consignment of flour has been received here, perhaps half has been forwarded to New York, and the balance retained here, both parcels have been sold on or about the same day, that sold here has netted a fair profit, while that shipped to New York has barely paid expenses. In the fall, holders of flour and grain who shipped from the West through to New York have done better than they would have, had they sold here as soon as the property reached this market; but had they held this property here for the same length of time that elapsed in its reaching its destination, and until it was sold, the profits realized would have been far larger. These are facts beyond dispute, as the figures of the daily markets at both cities will show. The question may be asked, How comes this? One great cause which may be assigned as a reason for this state of things is, that a greater extent of country with a large consumptive demand, looks to Buffalo for its supplies, than to any other market west of New York. The demand for the interior of our own State, as well as for the New England States, is large, and there is always either a good home or speculative demand for all descriptions of produce.

One reason which may be assigned for the high prices which ruled throughout the spring, is that during last winter purchases were made to a considerable extent of flour and grain at the high rates that then prevailed with the expectation that there would be a large foreign demand, and that prices would consequently open high in the spring. Such, however, was not the case, and the prices then paid have not been warranted by the figures obtained in the New York market. It is also well known that before the new harvest came in, the stock of grain at the upper lake ports was much reduced, and the arrivals from the interior were

barely sufficient to keep the mills in operation. Lake freights were consequently scarce, and to obtain which vessel owners were compelled to purchase cargoes to freight their vessels at figures which not only paid them no freight, but which it was with difficulty could be obtained here.

FLOUR. There has been an active demand for all the grades of Western flour during the past season at fair prices. In fact, the supply has not at all times been equal to the demand. The receipts by lake show a slight falling off from the previous season. The receipts for 1853 were 983,837 bbls., and for 1852, 1,299,513, showing a decrease of 315,676 bbls. Several reasons may be assigned for this falling off. During the entire season, commencing with the earliest navigation, the transit of property through to tide-water was tardy and uncertain, owing to the frequent breaks, and shippers hesitated in taking the venture of the route with their produce. In the mean time Oswego and Ogdensburgh were actively reaching westward for a share in the carrying trade, which they secured in very liberal portions. The enterprise which usually characterizes new routes has been very active at Ogdensburgh, and secured a larger amount of property for that point than the public are generally aware of. This property has been reached through low prices of transportation, which have not remunerated the parties engaged in the route. A large portion of the flour which has sought a market by that route has been Michigan flour. This flour, which is damper than either Ohio or Illinois flour, is preferred in the New England market for home consumption, while it is not so good for export as Southern Ohio flour. Those parties interested in these railroads have gone into Michigan and purchased largely and shipped by that route with a view of bringing it into public notice.

While the crop in all the wheat-growing regions of the West did not afford quite an average yield the last season, the quality of the grain was unusually fine, and as a matter of course, the flour, as a general thing, is of a much higher grade than formerly. The improvement in the character of the flour has been most perceptible in that coming from Wisconsin. The reputation of Wisconsin wheat and flour has, until the past season, been low; but so great has been the improvement in both since the last harvest, that they will in another year, with the same ratio of progress, compare favorably with the produce of Ohio or Michigan. As far as we can learn, the stock of flour at the lake ports is very small, and there was a smaller stock here in Buffalo at the close of navigation in 1853 than there has been at that season for many years past. In this connection, we give the following as the quantity of flour manufactured in Buffalo by the following mills during the year 1853:—

	Bbls.		Bbls.
Erie Mills.....	70,000	Clinton Mills.....	8,000
Niagara.....	65,000	Globe.....	5,000
Frontier.....	34,429		
Queen City.....	33,867		216,296

The Globe Mills have been engaged during a portion of the season in grinding corn, which consequently reduces the quantity of flour manufactured. The above are the principal mills within Buffalo. There are other small grist mills, of which we have no statistics.

WHEAT. As in the case of flour, wheat shows a slight falling off for the past season from the receipts of 1852. The comparative receipts are, for 1852, 5,549,778 bushels; for 1853, 5,424,043—decrease in 1853, 125,735 bushels. The same causes which are assigned for the decrease in the receipts of flour, may also be given for wheat. There has been a large business done in this staple in our market during the past season. The high prices which have ruled throughout the year has drawn out from the farmers' hands far more than the usual proportion of the crop. Many regions are absolutely drained of all that can be spared. This is particularly the case with a large portion of Michigan and Indiana, and Ohio even has much less than her usual supply left on hand. And as it has, almost as soon as it passed from the farmers' hands, gone forward to the seaboard, the receipts here and in Eastern markets, on the opening of navigation next spring, must of necessity be very light. There has been up to this time no accumulation of wheat in any of the lake ports, and scarcely any

in the warehouses in the interior. The stock in Buffalo is very small, and far short of the quantity in store here a year ago. We must conclude, therefore, that considerably the larger portion of the last wheat crop is already in the Eastern market. This being the case, while we cannot expect a very large trade in wheat the coming spring, we may look for an active one, and with considerable confidence may calculate that the scarcity alone of this article will prevent it from declining much in price until the next harvest shall be ready for the market. The same causes which have drawn out from the country so large a portion of the last crop have induced more extensive plantings this year. Thus far the season has been remarkably favorable to the crops in the ground, and we hope that the next harvest will have a larger aggregate yield than the last.

CORN. This article also shows a large falling off for the past year. The receipts for 1852 were 5,136,746 bushels; in 1853, 3,665,793 bushels; decrease, 1,470,953 bushels. The deficiency in this article is attributable to a short crop, and the same may be said of the other descriptions of grain, oats, barley, and rye, all of which show a small falling off, when compared with the receipts of 1852. The aggregate quantity of grain of all descriptions received at this port during the season was 11,078,751 bushels.

ELEVATORS ON BUFFALO CREEK. The large and constantly increasing imports of grain by lake at this port, have induced our merchants to build Elevators on the Creek for facilitating the unloading of lake vessels, and the loading of canal boats and railroad cars. There are at present in good working order on the Creek ten Elevators, capable of storing and elevating per hour the following quantities of grain:—

	Capacity. Bushels.	Bushels per hour.		Capacity. Bushels.	Bushels per hour.
Brown's Elevator....	350,000	2,500	Sterling's Elevator...	140,000	2,000
Hatch's	200,000	2,500	Richmond's.....	80,000	2,500
Evans & Dunbar's...	200,000	2,500	Holley & Johnson's..	80,000	2,500
Fish's	150,000	2,500	Hollister's.....	50,000	1,400
Seymour & Wells's..	150,000	2,500			
Dart's	150,000	2,000		1,550,000	22,400

Several of these Elevators possess facilities for loading canal boats twice as fast as they can elevate from a vessel's hold.

PROVISIONS. There has been an active local and home demand for pork, beef, and cut meats throughout the season. The demand for the interior of the State has been quite large, and dealers have found it difficult to supply the inquiry at all times, and especially for the latter article. The receipts by lake of pork this year over last, are much larger. The receipts in 1853 were 102,548 bbls., and in 1852, 74,092 bbls., or an increase in favor of the past year of 28,456 bbls. In beef there has been a slight falling off for the last season as compared with 1852. In the other articles, however, of bacon, butter, tallow, and lard, the increase is large, and in several cases over double—as in bacon the receipts in 1853 were 23,075,645 lbs., while in 1852 they were only 9,796,590 lbs.

Pork packing has come to be quite a business of itself in Buffalo. From the best data we can obtain, upward of 35,000 hogs have been slaughtered in this city during the year. Eight of the principal firms engaged in slaughtering and curing, have packed about 10,000 bbls. The number of hogs cut up, and the quantity of hams, shoulders, and sides cured, we have been unable to obtain correctly, but sufficient is given to show that this item alone is no inconsiderable one. Pork packing in our city is only beginning to be understood. In another year, we will venture to predict that this business will be treble or quadruple what it is now. As a point for carrying on this business successfully, Buffalo is superior to many western lake ports. Barrels can be obtained here as cheap as at the West, and salt much cheaper; but the most important fact is, that there is always a ready market here for the disposal of the offal, which is not the case west.

The quantity of beef packed here is not large, probably not over 1,500 bbls.

The following table will show the quantity and value of the principal articles received by lake at Buffalo during the season of 1853:—

Articles.	Quantity.	Value.	Articles.	Quantity.	Value.
Flour	bbls. 988,837	\$6,394,940	Bacon	lbs. 23,075,645	\$1,846,051
Pork	102,548	1,081,578	Tobacco	hhds. 2,038	142,532
Beef	69,776	697,760	Tobacco	boxes. 5,080	126,250
Ashes	11,553	288,825	Wool	bales. 45,830	3,668,800
Whisky	66,707	667,070	Flax	520	7,800
Seeds	37,018	270,180	Hemp	1,977	49,425
Eggs	11,000	110,000	Pelts	5,288	132,200
Fish	7,731	61,848	Furs	pkgs. 1,095	198,925
Cranberries	1,096	13,162	Lumber	feet. 89,294,789	1,839,421
Oil	7,965	238,950	Staves	No. 9,215,240	276,457
Meal	811	1,244	Shingles	M. 3,542,642	10,629
Tongues	130	1,800	Lath	2,058,920	4,117
Nuts	1,548	7,740	Feathers	sacks. 1,556	13,995
Beans	1,151	4,028	Horses	No. 1,531	153,000
Hides	No. 98,009	284,027	Cattle	20,466	1,227,960
Leather	rolls. 7,991	199,775	Sheep	23,223	69,660
Broom corn	bales. 4,963	59,556	Live hogs	114,952	1,149,620
Buffalo robes	631	31,550	Dressed hogs	5,178	78,660
Copper	tons. 1,068	504,000	Rags	bags. 3,416	17,080
Coal	38,188	190,140	Paper	bbls. 11,040	220,800
Iron	4,731	165,585	Hair	pkgs. 58	252
Lead	pigs. 36,004	108,012	Wax	bbls. 213	6,390
Wheat	bush. 5,424,043	6,671,672	Deer skins	pkgs. 3,837	191,850
Corn	3,665,793	2,199,475	Soap	boxes. 128	512
Oats	1,480,655	508,252	Starch	bbls. 591	5,319
Barley	401,098	248,082	Starch	boxes. 2,158	5,316
Rye	107,152	80,454	Candles	2,835	28,350
Butter	lbs. 6,589,784	988,467	Sugar	hhds. 185	18,500
Cheese	5,377,800	430,224	Ties	No. 11,682	4,400
Lard	8,185,500	818,550	Beans	bbls. 1,172	3,516
Tallow	762,810	91,537	Sundries	pkgs.	3,500,000
Total value					\$36,891,230
" " 1852					34,943,855
Increase in favor of 1853					\$1,937,375

The following table shows the principal articles landed at Buffalo, from the opening to the close of navigation, for two seasons:—

	1852.	1853.		1852.	1853.
Flour	bbls. 1,299,513	988,837	Flax	bales. 789	520
Pork	60,669	102,548	Broom corn	5,420	4,963
Beef	76,679	69,776	Buffalo robes	80	631
Whisky	79,806	66,707	Feathers	2,285	1,556
Corn meal	5,099	811	Pelts	3,296	5,288
Seed	31,559	37,018	Furs	bales & bxs. 2,909	1,095
Eggs	7,686	11,000	Leather	rolls. 7,155	7,991
Fish	6,814	7,773	Hides	No. 95,452	98,008
Oil	7,577	7,965	Copper	tons. 439	1,068
Cranberries	1,176	1,096	Iron	4,848	4,731
Nuts	2,573	1,548	Coal	34,665	38,188
Ashes	14,522	11,558	Lead	pigs. 31,916	36,004
Wheat	bush. 5,549,778	5,424,043	Tobacco	hhds. 6,620	2,038
Corn	5,186,746	3,665,793	Tobacco	bxs. 7,799	5,080
Oats	2,596,231	1,480,655	Lumber	ft. 72,337,255	89,294,789
Rye	112,271	107,152	Shingles	M. 13,532,000	3,542,642
Barley	497,913	401,098	Lath	1,600,000	2,058,920
Butter	lbs. 3,989,917	6,589,784	Staves	No. 12,998,814	9,215,240
Lard	7,164,872	8,185,300	Horses	1,643	1,533
Tallow	1,014,686	762,810	Cattle	15,926	20,466
Bacon	9,696,590	23,075,645	Sheep	16,590	23,223
Wool	bales. 45,172	45,830	Live hogs	111,223	114,952
Hemp	3,597	1,977			

The total value of the imports for the year 1853, as appears by our figures, is \$36,881,230. We have for years back been able to obtain from the Custom House the imports by lake, and their value. This year, however, these tables have not been kept by the Collector or his clerks, and we are therefore obliged to resort to the tables which we have published daily of the receipts for the year, and make out the valuation of the same, with the assistance of those who are acquainted with the prices of the different articles. We are satisfied, however, that our figures, as we give them above, are far more correct than if we were to rely on the tables which might be got up by the Collector or his deputies from the manifests reported to them. It is well known that many vessels during the season arrive in port, discharge their cargo, and reload and leave port, without ever reporting at the Custom House. Several of the steamers which have been engaged in the stock trade during the past season, have frequently arrived in port after the Custom House has been closed. Their load has been principally cattle and hogs. They are unloaded in a very short time, and leave port again for another load before the office opens in the morning. Such instances were of almost daily occurrence during the past summer. The reporters for the press have generally been on hand and have obtained copies of their manifests, while the Custom House has not. Again, propellers which have cleared from some upper lake port for this district, say Tonawanda—and it has occurred almost daily—have touched here and unloaded perhaps 1,000 barrels of flour, or 500 barrels of pork, or other articles of produce, and have gone on to their destination with the remainder of their cargo, without reporting here. In such cases the vessel is not required to report to the Custom House here, and therefore no minute is kept of it unless some reporter gets it. There is another reason why we do not get the full receipts at this port, and that is, that vessels on leaving the port, say of Chicago, obtain a clearance specifying their cargo—they come on to Kenosha or Milwaukee and receive additions to their cargoes, which is not always noted in the manifest. From these facts and others, we are inclined to believe that our figures, as kept during the season of the imports, are under their actual value.

It will also be seen by reference to our tables under the head of railroads, that the Buffalo and State Line Railroad have brought to our city during the year ending Dec. 31, 1853, a large amount of produce, which according to our figures is valued at \$2,234,273. This, added to our imports by lake, would make the total imports of Buffalo from the West, for the past year, \$39,115,503, or an increase over 1852 of over \$5,000,000; and if we add to our imports from the West the imports by canal and railroad from the East, it will show a Commerce of over one hundred and twenty-five million dollars! In the above no estimate has been made of the value of the many tons of valuable goods and specie, transported by the express companies over the railroads and on board the steamers, or of the enormous passenger trade of these lines. Were it possible to arrive at the value of such commerce, it would undoubtedly swell the aggregate amount of trade by many millions of dollars.

The amount of specie on deposit in the custom house in this city on the 31st of December, 1853, and subject to draft was \$33,532 50.

The amount paid out by the collector of this port during the past year to destitute and indigent sailors was \$3,235 23, and the amount collected in this district during the same period for that fund was \$1,317 44. The deficit, \$1,917 79, is made up by drafts on the fund appropriated by Congress for the relief of sailors.

The following table shows the entrances and clearances at this port of foreign and American vessels, together with their tonnage and crews, during the year 1853:—

Arrived.	No.	Tons.	Men.	Boys.
American vessels from foreign ports.....	182	24,235 36	1,047	45
Foreign do. do.....	785	116,285 93	5,714	360
Total.....	867	140,471 29	6,761	405

Cleared.	No.	Tons.	Men.	Boys.
American vessels to foreign ports.....	152	29,629 66	1,278	53
Foreign do. do.....	735	116,266 49	6,722	358
Total.....	887	145,896 15	8,000	411
Coasting trade.				
Inwards.....	3,239	1,491,604 60	50,917	1,179
Outwards.....	3,305	1,475,006 22	52,434	1,156
Total.....	6,544	2,966,610 82	103,351	2,337
Grand total—1853.....	8,298	3,252,978 26	128,112	3,153
do. 1852.....	9,441	3,092,247 73	127,491	5,215
do. 1851.....	9,050	3,087,538 80	120,542	5,251
do. 1850.....	8,444	2,748,700 86	126,672

BANKS AND BANKING. There has always hitherto been much embarrassment felt by all classes of business men of Buffalo, in consequence of the limited banking capital employed in their midst, and it has not been a little surprising that Eastern capitalists have not perceived that the banking facilities of that city are wholly disproportionate to the amount of business done, and that there is no place scarcely in our whole country where a legitimate banking house of heavy capital can be more profitably located than there.

The entire resources of all the banks now located in Buffalo are inadequate to the produce and forwarding business alone. While the dock men of both branches not only absorb all the means of the city banks, but are obliged frequently to go abroad for that accommodation necessary to enable them to carry on their business successfully. Those engaged in other branches of trade are compelled either to forego entirely all resort to the banks, or to deal with them on extremely unfavorable terms. The discounts to produce and forwarding houses being generally made on fifteen and twenty day paper, payable in New York, the banks prefer their business to that of up-town houses in other branches of trade who desire to make their paper on longer time and payable at home. By thus renewing their discounts in so short intervals, and each time receiving the benefit of the difference of exchange between this city and New York, the banks are enabled to make very handsome dividends.

The inconvenience of business men is still further increased from the fact that the banks are numerous enough, while their aggregate capital is altogether insufficient. During the past year two new banks have gone into operation—the “Queen City” and the “City Bank,” both with small capitals. The following is a list of all the banks in the city, and their capitals:—

O. Lee & Co. Bank.....	\$160,000	Patchin Bank.....	\$100,000
White's ".....	100,000	Hollister ".....	200,000
Bank of Attica.....	160,000	City ".....	100,000
Marine Bank.....	170,000	Pratt's ".....	60,000
Sacket's Harbor Bank... ..	200,000	Farmers' and Mechanics' Bank..	100,000
Queen City ".....	75,000	Exchange Bank.....	50,000
Total.....			\$1,475,000

Here we have twelve banks with an aggregate capital of \$1,475,000 in a city whose Commerce alone is now yearly of the value of over one hundred millions of dollars. What Buffalo needs most is “banking facilities.” By this we mean an institution with sufficient capital to discount manufacturers’ papers at two, four and six months, payable at home. These institutions to be controlled by men who can appreciate the true interests of the city and its population, and their own as well, and who will be content with fair profits, and not seek to swell them by shifts and evasions of the statutes against usury. Produce operations can be conducted successfully under our present system of discounts, but the business of manufacturing upon such a scale as Buffalo requires, cannot be carried on without financial auxiliaries of a different character. We must furnish

facilities for the manufacturer to sell on a responsible credit, and then turn his customers' paper into money by paying legal interest, thus saving him from being cramped, thrown out of the bank and sent to a broker's to have his paper shaved with the money of the bank who have thrown him out. A few of our citizens, by a united, vigorous effort, might found a bank with a capital of say one million, which shall confine its operations to discounting paper payable at home or in Western cities, charging seven per cent interest, and a quarter or a half per cent for collecting Western paper, taking Western money at par and paying out the same to its manufacturing customers. Capital for such an institution can be readily procured. Banking business conducted as it is generally in Buffalo, fails to be of any benefit to a large class of our citizens, a class, too, with whose success the business and prosperity of the city is intimately associated. Another evil from which the citizens of Buffalo suffer to a great extent is in the large amount of depreciated currency which is in circulation. Every conceivable description of paper issue appears to find its way here, and for want of something better, is adopted into general use by our dealers, although the aggregate of loss which it entails upon them is large and materially detracts from the profits of legitimate business. This evil might be remedied to a great extent if we had banks at home with adequate capital to furnish currency with which the business transactions of the city might be conducted.

OUR LAKE MARINE. Ship Building. It is not to the ocean alone that the contest for maritime superiority is to be confined. There is another vast race-course, as it is termed, upon which the struggle will be as exciting and quite as warmly contested as that which now attracts the attention of the civilized world on both sides of the Atlantic. We mean our great north-western lakes.

The history of our lake marine, could it be written out in full, would be a subject of interesting study. It would present a series of triumphs in naval architecture, quite as important to the States bordering on the lakes, quite as clearly defined and as legitimately gained by the aid of nautical skill and of keen observation, united to a wise application of scientific principles as those which have occurred along the greater extent of our national seaboard.

At the present time this subject addresses itself to the whole country connected with the Commerce of the Lakes with great emphasis, for the reason that the rapidly developing condition of our Western States requires an equally rapid increase of the facilities for transporting to market their annually augmented products. Whatever adds to the efficiency of our lake marine, to its sailing qualities, to the safety with which it bears its treasures over these waters, to the cheapness with which it can transport the products of our soil, our mines, our forests and manufactories, is so much added to the actual wealth of the country, to its industrial energy, and its ultimate supremacy in all the elements of power.

Buffalo, from the unsurpassed advantages offered by superiority of location, naturally takes the lead of any other lake city in this important branch of industry. The ship yards of this city have already sent forth upon the Western waters, steamers which must elicit the wonder and admiration of the world. Steamboats, propellers, and every class of sailing vessels, can be built here with greater advantage to the owner in the important item of economy, and at the same time superior to all others in quality and model. The timber used is procured from Canada, and from different locations bordering on Lake Erie, and is upon the whole better than that used at many points on the upper Lakes, and again the important item of iron, which enters largely into the construction of vessels, can be laid down here at a much lower figure than at any other point on the Lakes.

Buffalo is well supplied with machine shops and furnaces, and machinery can be made in this city as cheap as elsewhere, and considering the great expense of transportation, chiefly by railroad in winter, and the disadvantages from having the hull and engine built at so great a distance from each other, perhaps cheaper. Connected with one of the yards in the city, there is a dry dock of sufficient capacity to admit a steamer of over 2,500 tons, and 350 feet in length, with marine railway to facilitate the hauling out and repairing of vessels. There is also near this yard a large derrick for the handling of boilers and heavy machinery

These and other facilities which we possess, give to Buffalo the preference as a ship building city, and to these facts may be attributed the reason she has turned out the large amount of tonnage noted below during the past year, and what is now on the stocks, a great portion of which is building for parties residing in other lake cities.

THE FOLLOWING IS A LIST OF THE STEAMERS, PROPELLERS, AND SAIL VESSELS, WITH THEIR TONNAGE, BUILT AT THE PORT OF BUFFALO DURING THE YEAR 1853:—

STEAMERS.			
	Tons.		Tons.
Queen of the West.....	1,851.80	Mississippi.....	1,827.12
Crescent City.....	1,746.12	St. Lawrence.....	1,844.39
Garden City.....	657.81		
Total steamers.....			7,926.24

PROPELLERS.			
Northern Michigan.....	359.25	Louisville.....	366.02
Jefferson.....	344.63	Cincinnati.....	366.02
Portsmouth.....	525.57	Kentucky.....	366.02
Young America.....	359.49	Brunswick.....	512.20
Charter.....	241.86	Chapman.....	77.38
International.....	478.89	Underwriter.....	107.44
Iowa.....	941.53	P. L. Barton.....	40.30
Tug.....	115.30	A. S. Fields.....	115.22
Dayton.....	366.50		
Total propellers.....			5,678.72

BRIGS.	
Young America.....	346.29

SCHOONERS.			
North Star.....	366.94	Arabian.....	352.98
Homer Ramsdell.....	275.91	Oriental.....	270.68
C. Reeves.....	279.80	Thornton.....	353.98
Gem.....	306.50		
Total sail.....			2,553.98

Total of steamers.....	7,926.24
Total of propellers.....	5,678.72
Total of sail.....	2,553.98

Grand total.....	16,158.94
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It is a significant fact that out of 16,158.94 tons of vessels building at Buffalo during 1853, there were but eight sailing vessels of 2,553.98 tons. The remainder, 13,604.96 tons, consisting of steam vessels, showing conclusively that steam is growing more rapidly into favor in a trade so admirably adapted to its successful application as that of the Western lakes. The high rates of freights on the Lakes will doubtless stimulate vessel building to a great extent during the coming winter. During last spring and fall lake freights were very high, while in the middle of summer they were low, but only for a short period. The large amount of shipping now on the stocks at all the lake ports, leads to the hope that prices will not be apt to rule as high next spring as is generally expected. Nevertheless there is no reason to doubt that the commercial marine of the Lakes will be very prosperous for many years to come, as the increased productions of the country, resulting from the stimulated influence of the completed and completing railroads, and the changes in the channels of trade which such roads cannot fail to effect, will augment the material for transportation with an unexamplified rapidity.

The tonnage of vessels now in process of construction, and to be built during the present winter at the port of Buffalo, so far as we are informed, aggregates about 11,056 tons.

This branch of industry gives constant employment to from twelve to fifteen hundred mechanics, who earn good wages throughout the year.

STATEMENT SHOWING THE TOTAL NUMBER OF STEAMERS AND PROPELLERS BELONGING TO THE DISTRICT OF BUFFALO CREEK, N. Y., DURING THE QUARTER ENDING DECEMBER 31, 1853—THEIR NAMES, TONNAGE, AND NUMBER OF PERSONS EMPLOYED ON EACH VESSEL:—

Steamers.	Tons.	Cr'w.	Steamers.	Tons.	Cr'w.	Steamers.	Tons.	Cr'w.
South. Michigan	1,470.54	45	Empire.....	1,440.72	43	Kossuth.....	318.60	16
North. Indiana.	1,475.50	45	Golden Gate ..	770.48	25	Great Western..	780.60	20
Mississippi....	1,829.12	48	Garden City...	657.31	25	Minnesota.....	749.45	20
St. Lawrence....	1,844.39	48	Wisconsin.....	887.15	28	Fox.....	102.00	4
Oreocent City..	1,746.12	45	Sultana.....	806.38	30	Kaloolah.....	443.84	19
Queen of West.	1,851.30	45	Hend. Hudson..	750.46	30	Patent.....	31.02	3
Empire State..	1,691.20	45	Lexington.....	363.53	24	Froy.....	546.47	25
Buckeye State.	1,274.17	30	Diamond	331.61	24	Superior.....	567.17	25
Lady Elgin ...	1,087.34	25	Union.....	62.34	3	John Hollister..	218.90	13
Globe	1,223.26	30	Belle.....	240.25	18	America.....	1,083.27	25

Number of steamers	30
Total tonnage of steamers.....	26,593.98
Number of hands employed	831

Propellers.	Tons.	Cr'w.	Propellers.	Tons.	Cr'w.	Propellers.	Tons.	Cr'w.
F. W. Backus...	289.78	15	California.....	420.26	19	Sciota	384.32	20
Indiana.....	349.34	18	Samson.....	250.50	18	Ohio	441.66	20
Dunkirk.....	544.56	20	F. Follett.....	67.63	6	Saginaw.....	407.23	18
Bucephalus ...	493.42	17	Franklin.....	39.32	5	Troy.....	304.04	18
Buffalo.....	689.21	20	Queen of Lakes.	563.53	20	Cataract.....	393.71	16
P. F. Barton....	40.30	5	Portsmouth	525.59	20	Mayflower	623.77	21
Young America..	559.49	18	Dart	96.44	8	G. W. Tift.....	81.26	6
New England ..	361.67	18	Sandusky.....	370.79	19	Genesee Chief..	429.32	15
Westmoreland..	665.84	20	Montezuma	322.63	19	Nile	650.08	20
Underwriter ...	107.44	10	Oregon.....	312.91	19	Edith	549.29	18
Owego	483.56	18	Detroit.....	293.71	16	Brunswick	512.20	18
Pilot.....	77.38	6	Paugasset.....	290.63	21	Milwaukee	616.44	20
Iowa.....	981.53	20	M. B. Spaulding.	419.56	19	Allegheny	468.02	15
Charter Oak....	184.24	12	Niagara	450.49	20	Charter	241.86	13
St. Joseph	460.16	24	Illinois	530.55	20			
Pocahontas.....	426.64	18	H. A. Kent.....	442.27	18			

Number of propellers	46
Number of persons employed	765
Total tonnage.....	18,004.99

NAMES, TONNAGE, AND NUMBER OF CREW OF ALL SAIL VESSELS ENROLLED AND LICENSED IN THE DISTRICT OF BUFFALO CREEK, N. Y., DECEMBER 31, 1853:—

Brigs.	Tons.	Cr'w.	Brigs.	Tons.	Cr'w.	Brigs.	Tons.	Cr'w.
Globe.....	319.77	9	Emerald.....	185.40	7	John Hancock ..	260.14	10
Patrick Henry..	316.07	12	Missouri.....	153.17	8	Constellation....	260.34	10
Jan. McBride....	271.85	9	Ramsey Crooks.	228.43	10	Oleander.....	262.38	10
Shakespeare	260.55	10	Young America.	346.29	12	Virginia.....	160.32	7
Buffalo.....	263.75	10	L. A. Blossom... 258.09	12	Andes.....	268.19	10	
Wm. Monteath .	261.79	10	Grey-Hound ...	367.00	10	Southampton ...	241.82	8
Lowell	255.90	10	Fashion.....	223.35	10	Mahoning.....	259.42	9
Tuscarora.....	253.43	11	C. J. Hutchins..	341.42	11	C. A. Bemis.	207.45	10
Mobegan.....	248.09	8	David Smart ...	203.43	10	St. Louis.....	210.80	10
H. R. Seymour .	245.88	11	Castalia	241.82	10	St. Louis, 2d ...	185.74	9
S. O. Walbridge..	227.16	9	J. R. Giddings..	269.65	10	Alert.....	184.17	9
Odd Fellow.....	224.64	10	Sandusky.....	225.68	10			
Preble	217.32	8	Banner.....	431.38	14			

Number of brigs	37
Number of persons employed.....	364
Total tonnage.....	9,342.13

Barks.	Tons. Cr'w.	Barks.	Tons. Cr'w.
Canada	660.38 20	Trade Wind	374.12 10

Number of barks.....	9
Number of persons employed	30
Total tonnage.....	1,034.50

Schooners.	Tons. Cr'w.	Schooners.	Tons. Cr'w.	Schooners.	Tons.
Virginia Purdy .	301.46 10	Hanover.....	237.87 8	Abiah	353.49 10
H. B. Bishop ...	263.80 7	J. K. Polk	72.92 6	Tiger.....	42.29 3
Suffolk	250.12 12	Gen. Pierce.....	63.86 6	Wing-and-Wing.	216.84 10
Hope	249.83 10	Palo Alto.....	202.73 9	Magnolia	198.67 8
Excelsior	247.55 10	Pearl.....	151.14 7	Missouri	159.55 7
M. H. Sibley ...	252.18 8	J. W. Blake.....	27.64 3	Congress.....	206.32 7
Robert Emmett..	245.07 9	Defiance.....	253.53 9	Albany.....	144.03 3
E. K. Bruce	240.39 9	Crevola.....	212.83 9	Erie.....	62.88 5
George Davis ..	238.46 9	May Queen.....	43.22 4	Stranger.....	124.92 7
Ivanhoe	237.56 8	J. M. Lee	100.24 6	Chesapeake	131.03 5
Henry Hagar....	227.51 9	Navigator.....	108.65 6	Fox.....	405.09 10
Denmark	236.63 10	Flying Dutchman	74.49 5	W. W. Brigham.	121.16 7
Green Bay.....	233.62 10	H. Ramsdell	276.91 8	Itlica	199.42 9
C. Y. Richmond..	229.45 9	Etna	94.71 5	Gen. Harrison ..	115.98 6
Pilgrim	228.55 9	Effort	77.27 5	Birmingham	137.83 7
Dan Marble.....	213.68 8	Actares	176.46 8	Plymouth	197.68 7
Mansfield	313.27 9	Arcturus	412.46 10	Miranda	217.59 9
Petrel	208.71 8	Orion	305.25 9	Albatross	234.62 10
A. Belmont	208.34 10	North Star	366.94 9	Margaret	125.37 6
P. P. Pratt	196.60 8	Sandusky	110.34 6	Wm. Wallace....	83.53 6
G. T. Williams..	167.04 8	North Carolina .	95.15 6	Star	224.93 10
A. Barton	155.74 8	United States ..	93.19 7	Tuscola.....	221.21 3
Lexington.....	118.10 7	Palatina	90.93 6	M. Douseman ..	153.57 7
Marion	140.86 8	Barcelona.....	89.74 6	J. B. Skinner ..	142.40 7
Wyandott.....	140.66 7	E. Fletcher....	61.24 6	R. C. Smead	75.46 5
Trenton	132.66 7	Huron	132.29 7	Lewis Cass.....	191.97 6
Big Z	168.67 8	S. J. Eason	88.46 6	Home	127.59 5
W. Irving.....	111.44 7	Traveler.....	266.56 10	Aldebaran	308.55 9
Free Trader.....	111.23 6	Windham	236.80 8	Maine	194.79 3
West Wind	255.58 8	Dawn	262.37 8	Troy	122.00 6
H. L. Lansing ..	369.64 10	Almeda	269.65 6	J. W. Brown ...	238.55 9
Robert Willis....	367.86 10	C. Chauncey....	80.17 6	Luther Wright..	195.75 7
Montgomery.....	248.51 8	North America .	75.63 6	William	178.77 7
Roscoe	135.87 6	Vermont	67.92 6	Puritan.....	223.35 9
Illinois	110.31 6	Lodi	66.24 5	Caroline Ames..	142.60 8
Cambridge	106.05 6	Minerva	60.64 6	Scow Aldebaran.	96.77 7
Post Boy	95.24 5	Ocean	59.37 4	Gem	306.43 10
O. Reeves	279.80 8	E. Whittlesey ..	40.67 6		
Morning Star ...	21.09 5	Lion	30.92 6		

Number of schooners	115
Number of hands employed	853
Total tonnage.....	17,992.30
Number of steam and sail vessels belonging to this district	230
Total number of persons employed.....	2,843

Total tonnage of steam and sail vessels, 1853.....	72,967.89
“ “ “ 1852.....	56,523.51

Increase in favor of 1853	16,444.38
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We give below a summary statement of disasters which have occurred to the marine belonging to the District of Buffalo Creek, New York, during the year 1853, together with the loss of life and property consequent thereupon, as follows:—

Total loss of property for 1853 is.....	\$248,713
“ loss of life “	15
“ number of disasters “	73

RECAPITULATION.

Amount of loss by steam.....	\$90,890
“ sail.....	157,823
	<hr/> \$248,713

Of the seventy-three disasters, one steamer, one brig, and five schooners, or 2,367 tonnage, have gone out of existence entirely.

The number of accidents exceed those of last year, while the loss of property and life is much less. The great decrease in the loss of life and property by collision and explosion, shows a very gratifying result of the first year's operation of the new law relative to vessels propelled by steam, and the improved system of lights.

There is one fact worthy of note here, showing the extent of the marine of the port of Buffalo as compared with that of all other ports on the Lakes. The total amount of loss by disasters on all the lakes, the marine of all ports on those lakes, for the year 1853 is \$874,143, of which the port of Buffalo loses \$248,713, or over one-fourth.

MANUFACTURES. It was our intention to notice briefly the several iron manufacturing establishments of Buffalo, but owing to their number and the difficulty of obtaining statistics from each under a delay of several weeks, we are compelled to refer to them only generally. Buffalo, from her position geographically, with railroads, lake, canal, and river radiating to all points of the compass, and with the inexhaustible iron and coal beds of Pennsylvania within a few miles on the one hand, and the iron and copper ore of Lake Superior on the other, is destined shortly to become one of the greatest manufacturing cities west of New York, not even excepting Pittsburg or Cincinnati. There are few points more favorably situated for distributing manufactures than Buffalo. Natural and artificial communications of trade and travel reach from us to the North, the South, the East, and the West, and penetrate vast regions of rich and populous country. Already are there located in our midst numerous large engine and boiler manufactories, furnaces, car works, foundries, &c., and when the Buffalo and Pittsburg Railroad is completed, and we have coal in abundance, no limit can be set to the extent to which manufacturing can be carried on at this place, for with cheap coal, iron, and copper, cotton and woollen manufacturing can be prosecuted to the extent of the demand in the West for those goods. We need only this coal to make a great manufacturing town of Buffalo. The shrewd and stirring men of New England will come in among us with their capital and their genius, as soon as the coal comes, and they will fill the air with the rattling and roaring of machinery.

If we can make Buffalo the great market for the copper of Lake Superior, various manufactories of copper and brass will be located here, requiring in the foundries, furnaces, mills, and shops, thousands of artisans, and if we are ready with our coal to work the iron ore of Lake Superior, then there will be erected the blast furnaces, the forges, the rolling mills to work the iron, and as this iron peculiarly fitted for making steel, there will grow up the steel works, scythe and tool factories, and the shops where files and cutlery will be made from that steel.

Buffalo has a bright prospect of future prosperity before her, and all that is required to realize this prosperity, is to secure the advantages within her grasp by building the road to the coal fields, and encouraging in every reasonable way the establishment of manufactories in that city.

RAILROADS. We have been unable to obtain precisely the amount and class of goods received at and shipped from Buffalo by railroad during the past year, for the reason that the companies are not required to report their traffic to the State Engineer as formerly, and consequently they no longer keep their books

and accounts to represent the old classifications. We have, however, been permitted by the freight agents of the several lines of railroad terminating in this city, to examine their freight books for the year, and having gone through each carefully, and with a great deal of labor, we are enabled to present much information that is both valuable and interesting, and which shows that the business of these railroads has increased almost beyond precedent over the previous year.

New York Central Railroad. This road has done an immense business during the past year. Notwithstanding the facilities they have possessed for doing a large freight business by consolidation, yet they have been unable to transport half the produce and merchandise that has been offered them, from the want of freight cars, and we doubt whether there can be found another road better equipped in this respect than the Central Road. Owing to the frequent interruptions to canal navigation during the past summer, their depots have been filled and emptied daily, with every description of produce destined for Albany and New York.

THE FOLLOWING TABLE WILL SHOW THE LEADING ARTICLES CARRIED BY THE NEW YORK CENTRAL RAILROAD FROM THIS CITY TO ROCHESTER, ALBANY, AND NEW YORK, DURING THE YEAR 1853:—

Flour.....bbls.	194,928	Hogs, live.....	79,523	Rye.....	1,223
Pork.....	7,650	Hogs, dressed....	9,979	Butter.....bbla.	3,618,400
Beef.....	20,553	Sheep.....	4,900	Cheese.....	2,229,650
Whisky.....	9,122	Hides.....	25,427	Tallow.....	404,100
Oil.....	930	Wheat.....bus.	62,787	Lard.....	595,800
Seeds.....	14,468	Corn.....	14,303	Bacon.....	2,382,500
Horses.....No.	1,447	Oats.....	9,045	Wool.....lbs.	19,153
Cattle.....	34,090	Barley.....	3,336	Leather....rolls.	7,642

During the past year this road has transported nearly 150,000 tons. The amount shipped each way it has been impossible to obtain separately. The company have made extensive preparations for doing a large business next year. Last year they enlarged their freight depot on Ohio-street, and have purchased several large lots of ground on the Creek, on which they intend erecting a large freight depot; they have also laid down tracks along the docks, extending from the main tracks each way to two of the principal elevators, where every facility will be had for loading their cars with grain. They have also purchased several large lots on Exchange-street, running back to Carroll, on which they will erect next spring a large passenger depot.

THE FOLLOWING GENERAL STATEMENT WILL SHOW THE RECEIPTS AND DISBURSEMENTS OF THIS ROAD FOR THE NINE MONTHS ENDING FEBRUARY 1ST, 1854:—

From passengers.....	\$2,410,435 26
For freight.....	1,512,427 85
Total receipts.....	3,922,863 11
Disbursements, including special expenditures.....	2,042,323 26
	<hr/>
	\$1,880,534 85
Deduct nine months interest, at 6 per cent on debt certificates, (\$8,836,210) and on debts of the old companies assumed under the consolidation agreement (\$1,861,828) in all say, \$10,747,033.....	\$483,616 49
Proportion of sinking fund for nine months to pay debt certificates at the rate of 1½ per cent per annum.....	83,298 84
	<hr/>
	566,015 33
Total receipts for nine months, after payments as above.....	\$1,313,619 52

The earnings of the road for the months of May, June, and July, were received by the former companies. During that period, and while the consolidation was being perfected, and even afterwards, large expenditures were made for repairs

on portions of the line, and in renewing the track where the rails had been worn out; in equipping the whole line; and in various other ways found indispensable to put the road in efficient working order. These were extraordinary expenses.

The amount charged to expense account has thus been much larger than it otherwise would have been, and larger, proportionately, than it will be hereafter.

The directors, we understand, in view of the true interests of the company, regard it of importance to keep the construction account within the most rigid limits, so that there may be no occasion to add either to its capital or liabilities. But after charging to the expense account whatever is necessary to render the road perfect in its organization and efficient in its operations, enough has transpired to assure its friends that their anticipations of its usefulness as a great central thoroughfare, and its value in other respects, will be fully realized.

Buffalo and New York City Railroad. This road has also done a large business during the past year, both in passengers and freight.

THE FOLLOWING TABLE SHOWS A FEW OF THE PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF PRODUCE CARRIED BY THE NEW YORK CITY RAILROAD FROM THIS CITY DURING THE YEAR 1853:—

Flour.....bbls.	85,557	Butter.....lbs.	518,800	Sheep	9,306
Pork.....	5,347	Bacon.....	1,329,000	Wool.....bbls.	2,398
Beef	5,700	Cheese	53,200	Hides.....	8,417
Ashes.....	1,094	Horses	597	Leatherrolls.	548
Whisky.....	4,439	Cattle	2,956	Lard.....lbs.	101,500
Seeds	5,649	Hogs.....	35,510	Skins....bbls.	700

The road has been in running order since November, 1852. The road was originally intended to extend from Attica to Hornellsville, to connect the New York Central and the New York and Erie, but was finally extended to Buffalo. The road was thus built 91 miles in length, instead of 60 as first intended. The total cost of the road and fixtures up to October 1st, was in round numbers \$3,348,000. The capital stock is \$900,000, of which about \$700,000 has been received and applied. The first bonds issued were \$700,000 secured only by a mortgage on that part of the road between Attica and Hornellsville, and \$500,000 were issued on mortgage of the remaining part of the road; a part of the last were applied to the purchase of that part of the road formerly owned by the Buffalo and Attica Railroad Company. About \$163,000 income bonds have also been issued, making the capital and funded debt something over \$2,000,000, and leaving still about \$1,200,000 floating debt. A part of this floating debt is secured to the creditors by a further issue of bonds which are hypothecated, but which have never been sold. The earnings of the road during the past summer have varied from \$18,000 per month, in May, to \$38,000 in October, and has receded again to \$28,000 in December; the falling off being in passenger receipts, those for freight having been steadily on the increase, and under the present reduced rates of expenditure less than half of the receipts have been required for running expenses. Could the receipts of the road be made to average \$37,500 per month, this would pay all the interest of the debt and leave a dividend of 8 per cent per annum on the capital stock, and this, with the consideration that the road is now complete with a branch to the harbor, offering facilities for freighting not heretofore enjoyed, that the entire cost of the road has only been about \$38,000 per mile, while the New York and Erie cost \$60,000, and others even more; that the opening of the railroads through Canada must increase the receipts for passengers, and that the real estate owned by the company in the city of Buffalo is worth \$200,000 more than it cost, ought to be an assurance that the road will eventually become a paying road, and that its stock will be a good investment.

This road has built during the past year, on Ohio-street, near the Ohio Basin Slip, and fronting on the Creek, a large and convenient freight depot, which will greatly add to their facilities for receiving, storing and forwarding produce of all descriptions. This immense structure has a frontage on Ohio-street of two hundred and fifty-six feet, running through a depth of two hundred and fifty-nine feet to the Creek. Two tracks are laid in the depot, and switches connecting them with the main track have been laid. There is also an excellent dock con-

nected with the depot, at which two propellers or steamers can lay and discharge their cargoes with perfect ease. This building was put up at a cost of about \$20,000. The success of this road is a matter of deep interest to Buffalo: it is the first, and as yet the only road connecting that city with New York by the broad gauge, and proper efforts in its behalf by our business men may make this the virtual termination of the New York and Erie Railroad.

Buffalo and State Line Railroad. This road has had difficulties to encounter during the past year, in its efforts to obtain a continuous gauge between this city and Cleveland, which has resulted most unfortunately for the interests of the road, and been a source of great inconvenience to the travelling community. Our readers are already well aware of the opposition which the company have met with from the citizens of Erie and others living on the line of the road through the State of Pennsylvania, in their attempt to change the gauge of the Erie and north-east road, and make it conform to the gauge of the roads which connect with that road at either end. Since the completion of the Lake Shore road to Cleveland the company have laid under serious disadvantages in doing a large freight business, owing to the breaks in the gauge and the necessity of unloading and reloading their cars twice between Buffalo and Cleveland, and for some months past there has been a break between Erie and the New York State line, of several miles in length, which has completely put a stop to the transportation of freight, except live stock. Notwithstanding these drawbacks, the road has done a large passenger and a good freight business, as our tables will show. We have been unable to obtain a statement of the earnings of the road for the year, but we are satisfied that the road has paid well.

The following is a statement of a few of the principal articles of produce brought to Buffalo by the Buffalo and State Line Railroad during the year 1853, and the value thereof:—

Quantity.		Value.	Quantity.		Value.
Flour.....bbls.	156	\$1,012	Bacon.....lbs.	77,000	\$6,360
Pork.....	198	2,920	Lard.....	99,400	9,940
Beef.....	89	800	Tallow.....	46,800	5,616
Whisky.....	171	1,710	Wool.....bales.	1,294	103,520
Seeds.....	5,827	58,270	Pelts.....	1,848	48,700
Ashes.....	103	2,575	Hemp.....	262	5,240
Eggs.....	1,870	13,790	Flax.....	50	750
Cattle.....No.	13,482	808,920	Leather.....rolls.	1,785	44,625
Horses.....	423	42,300	Hides.....No.	964	2,892
Sheep.....	4,482	13,446	Iron.....tons.	200	7,000
Hogs, live.....	26,640	266,400	Tobacco.....hhds.	21	1,470
“dressed.....	7,003	105,045	“.....boxes.	97	2,425
Butter.....lbs.	1,151,700	172,765	Sundries.....	500,000
Cheese.....	71,900	5,762			
Total value.....					\$2,234,273

The total value of the property brought to this city during the year by this road, according to our figures, is \$2,234,273. It will be seen that we put the value of sundries in our statement at \$500,000. In this estimate we include the article of lumber, of which quantities have been brought down, but it has been reckoned by weight and not by feet, and from the fact that this lumber is part green and part dry, and of different kinds, it has been impossible for us to arrive at anything near a correct estimate of the quantity. Our figures, however, of the total value we are inclined to believe are in the main correct. This road purposes building next spring a large freight depot adjoining the canal, which will greatly add to their facilities for transporting freight.

Buffalo, Niagara Falls, and Rochester Railroad. This road, which formerly ran from Buffalo to Niagara Falls was opened through to Rochester early last spring. It will be seen that this road has carried no inconsiderable amount of produce from Buffalo up to the time of its consolidation with the New York Central Railroad. The earnings and expenses of the road are included in the tables which we give under the head of New York Central Railroad. This company have had built during the past summer one of the largest and most con-

venient passenger depots in this State. The entire length of the building is four hundred feet, running along the edge of the canal, with dockage of the same extent, and a frontage of one hundred and eight feet on Erie street. The front part of this building, which runs back to the depth of eighty feet, is two stories high. The rear part of the building is the car house, and runs back a distance of three hundred and twenty feet by ninety-five feet. Four tracks have been laid down on this depot, with an ample platform on each side, and another, running through the center, reaches from one end to the other. This immense structure cost somewhere about \$40,000.

The following is a statement of a few of the principal articles carried from this city by the Buffalo, Niagara Falls and Rochester Railroad, from the 1st of January to June 10, 1853:—

Flour.....bbls.	14,344	Oil.....bbls.	95	Lard.....lbs.	17,400
Pork.....	210	Tobacco....boxes.	90	Leather.....rolls.	136
Beef.....	197	Bacon.....lbs.	30,310	Horses.....No.	15
Whisky.....	578	Butter.....	9,023	Hides.....	969
Seeds.....	2,592	Cheese.....	23,900		

The above road, having consolidated with the New York Central in June, no freight of any consequence passed over this road after that date, but went forward by the Central road from this city.

Buffalo, Brantford and Goderich Railroad. This road was opened through from this city to Brantford, within five miles of its intersection with the Great Western Railway at Paris on the 13th of January, 1854.

In October, 1851, the first contracts for the construction of the road were given out. In the following month the first shovelful of earth was raised. Little more than two years have elapsed, and seventy-five miles of the whole are finished, while the remainder is in a rapid state of progression. The entire length is 157 miles from Buffalo to Goderich. The section of country through which it passes is one of the finest on the continent. From Buffalo to Brantford the grade is, for the most part, of a dead level; in no part of it does it exceed thirty-five feet to the mile. The road is constructed of the very best description of T rail, at a gauge of five feet six inches, and at a cost a little below \$17,000 per mile. From Buffalo to Brantford the distance is 74½ miles. Already there are on the road locomotives, two of them, the Waterloo and Goderich, built in Schenectady, and inferior to none in America—eight passenger cars, built at Troy, each capable of accommodating sixty passengers, and for style and finish, comfort, strength and convenience, superior to any in the province, with freight, gravel and platform cars, sufficient for all purposes. To run in connection with the cars from the southern Canadian terminus to Buffalo, a propeller, the International, has been built, with every necessary convenience, capable of accommodating 500 passengers. At Waterloo, a splendid and convenient wharf, 2,000 feet in length, is in course of construction, and nearly finished. A fine brick depot has also been built at that place, with suitable turn-tables. At Dunville, thirty-five miles from Waterloo, a suitable station-house and other necessary and convenient buildings, are being erected. At Caledonia, similar erections will be made. In Brantford, the buildings of the company are of the most extensive and durable description. The repairing shop, built of white brick, is 263 feet long, sixty feet wide, two stories in height, and eighteen feet in the door. It is decidedly one of the best car shops in America, and turns out work of the first quality. In the immediate neighborhood of the car shop are engine houses, smiths' and machine shops and foundry, all built of the same material, 170 feet long and thirty feet wide. The round house stands immediately in front of the repair shop, built of white brick, and is 153 feet in diameter, Hows' truss-drawn roof, 107 feet from the grade line, and contains thirteen stalls for the locomotives, with turn-tables in the center. We are informed that twice as many more buildings are contracted for, to be put up in the spring. When completed, the whole, with the yards adjacent, will occupy a space of eleven acres. We have only to add, every thing connected with the works seems well adapted to its purpose. The whole road is expected to be in running order next fall, and from Buffalo to Paris by the 10th February.

This company has purchased the right of way of the old Buffalo and Black Rock Railroad in Buffalo, and will proceed immediately to relaying the track into the city. They also intend to erect a passenger depot somewhere below Erie-street. When this road is finished and fully ballasted, it is proposed to make the passage from this city to Paris, the point of intersection with the Great Western road, a distance of eighty miles, in two hours—including the crossing of the river. This, we should judge, can be done with ease. The track is almost a level, there are no embankments of any height, and the curvatures are so slight that they need not check the highest speed. This road will open to us a fine agricultural country, through which are interspersed numerous villages of considerable trade, and which are thus brought into close proximity with us, and henceforward their business relations must be mainly with Buffalo.

The Buffalo, Brantford and Goderich Railroad will be the main route of travel from Buffalo to Detroit and the West, as soon as it is completed to Paris. The distance from this city to Detroit by this road is some fourteen miles less than by the Great Western Railway, and considering the grades and curvatures of the two roads, the distance from Buffalo to their intersection at Paris will be run by the Buffalo and Brantford road in two hours, while it will take the Great Western three and a half or four hours.

Great Western Railway. This road was opened through from the suspension bridge to Windsor, opposite Detroit, a distance of 229 miles, on the 16th of Jan., 1854. It is contemplated to lay the track across the suspension bridge, and bring it up to Buffalo, by July next. In the mean time the road use the track and the trains of the Buffalo and Niagara Falls Railroad until their own are completed.

Buffalo, Corning and New York Railroad. This road was completed from Corning to Batavia some weeks since, and will shortly be open for passenger and freight business. The grading of the road from Batavia to Buffalo is completed, the masonry and bridges finished, and ties for three-fourths of the distance on the ground. The whole line will be completed next summer, and thus bring another rich and populous portion of the State in direct communication with Buffalo.

Buffalo and Pittsburg Railroad. The work on this road is progressing rapidly, and there is no reason to doubt but that the road will be pushed forward to an early completion. We believe that not more than twelve months will elapse before we shall be able to chronicle the completion of a work so auspiciously commenced.

The citizens of Buffalo may be congratulated heartily upon this prospect of the rapid progress towards the completion of a work which will be so beneficial to them, in a very important respect, as the Buffalo and Pittsburg Railroad. The want of a sufficient supply of fuel will probably be more seriously felt this season than at any former period. Coal is now high in price, and the supply does not nearly meet the necessities of the community. Owing to the increase in the use of coal in dwelling-houses this year over past years, and the additional requirements for fuel in our rapidly growing manufactories, this scarcity will be yet more severely felt. There is no boon which can be bestowed upon Buffalo more welcome than a liberal supply of coal at a moderate price, and this desideratum is to be supplied by the completion of the Buffalo and Pittsburg Railroad, and by that alone. The authorities, and all who are interested in the welfare of Buffalo, should back up the directors of the railroad with spirit and liberality in all their efforts.

OUR TRADE WITH CANADA. By reference to the tables which follow, it will be seen that the trade between this port and Canada is no inconsiderable one, and that it is increasing rapidly with each year. It may be well to observe here, that much of the property purchased in Buffalo for the Canadian market passes over the Buffalo and Niagara Falls Railroad to the suspension bridge, where it is reported as passing into Canada from the Niagara district, and is as such reported as the trade of that district, and therefore does not appear in our tables, while in fact it is a part of our trade.

The total value of the imports into this district from Canada during the year 1853 was \$392,719, and the amount of duties collected thereon was \$84,943 33, or an increase over last year of \$15,219 59.

The value of the export to Canada from the district of Buffalo Creek, for the year 1853, as reported at the Custom House, is \$992,406, or an increase over 1852 of \$151,606.

The annual duties collected at Buffalo for a series of years are as follows:—

1844.....	\$8,120 18	1848.....	\$24,236 30	1851.....	\$92,357 69
1845.....	12,047 49	1849.....	46,939 86	1852.....	69,723 74
1846.....	12,389 78	1850.....	67,649 95	1853.....	84,943 33
1847....	24,361 78				

It will be seen by the above that the amount of duties collected during 1853 falls short of that collected in 1851 by \$9,414 26. Of the amount, viz., \$92,357 69, collected in 1851, \$45,000 was for duties on railroad iron alone, and this year there has been comparatively no duties collected on that article. It therefore appears that there has been a large increase of other articles on which there has been a large increase of duties.

Canada produce imported into the district of Buffalo Creek for warehousing and for transportation in bond to the port of New York for transportation to foreign countries, during the year ending 20th December, 1853, was as follows:

Articles.	Quantity.	Value.	Articles.	Quantity.	Value.
Wheat.....bush.	168,378	\$169,008 57	Butter.....kegs	238	\$1,996 66
Flour.....bbls.	19,321	102,841 44	Beef.....tca.	100	1,230 00
Ashes.....casks	173	2,868 86	Fur skins.....No.	17,855	1,125 00

The following is a statement of the goods transferred from warehouse in other districts to Buffalo, for warehousing and for exportation to Canada, during the season of 1853:—

Articles.	Quantity.	Value.
Sugar.....hhds. and tca.	1,036	\$43,291 00
Dry goods, hardware, etc.....	59,203 00
		<u>\$102,494 00</u>

The merchandise remaining in warehouse at the port of Buffalo on the 1st of January, 1853, was as follows:—

Articles.	Quantity.	Value.	Articles.	Quantity.	Value.
Earthenware, crates	314	\$11,829 97	Sugar.....hhds.	14	\$519 00
Wheat.....bush.	26,319	10,563 92	Brandy.....casks	5	57 00
Flour.....bbls.	1,742	5,376 00	Gin.....	4	129 00

The following is the statement of merchandise remaining in warehouse on the 20th December, 1853:—

Articles.	Quantity.	Value.	Articles.	Quantity.	Value.
Earthenware, crates	189	\$7,665 69	Wheat... .bush.	4,918	6,250 00
Brandy.....casks	49	1,954 00	Brandy and gin, caks	24	1,523 00
Pig iron.....tons	853	11,259 00			

The merchandise remaining in warehouse at the port of Buffalo on the 20th December, 1853, was as follows:—

Articles.	Quantity.	Value.
Sugar.....hhds. and tca.	1,036	\$43,291 00
Dry goods, hardware, liquors, segars, &c.	59,203 00
Total.....		<u>\$102,494 00</u>

ABSTRACT OF DOMESTIC PRODUCE AND MANUFACTURES EXPORTED FROM THE DISTRICT OF
BUFFALO CREEK DURING THE YEAR ENDING 31ST DEC., 1853:—

Articles.	Quantity.	Value.	Articles.	Quantity.	Value.
Oil, whale	galls. 9,846	\$10,193	Coaches and carriages	\$3,816
Manufactures of wood	21,035	Hats	643
Pork	bbls. 203	2,726	Gunpowder	lbs. 1,410	282
Hams and bacon	13,180	1,176	Copper & brass m'n'fac's	1,892
Cheese	19,520	1,449	Wearing apparel	2,984
Whisky	galls. 49,187	11,484	Steam engine	1	5,000
Leather	lbs. 17,291	3,611	Machines	850
Candles, tallow	9,172	945	Broom corn	1,522
Tobacco	43,125	6,582	Nails	lbs. 27,766	1,087
Sugar, brown	89,286	5,565	Turpentine	2,379
Molasses	galls. 6,041	2,620	Rosin	bbls. 28	214
Salt	bbls. 1,433	1,605	Salt	1,200	1,376
Dry goods	182,392	Engines	3	28,000
Sundries	41,843	Lime	134	154
Groceries	216,413	Horses	89	2,716
Books	15,496	Whalebone	lbs. 71	36
Glass ware	12,228	Marble stone	2,567
Machinery	9,322	Railroad cars	9	4,200
Clocks	550	1,612	Skins, kip	169
Fish, dried	lbs. 19,826	971	Flour	bbls. 247	1,093
Fish, pickled.	bbls. 950	1,046	Glass	boxes 770	1,316
Hardware	164,680	Rope	lbs. 15,000	1,471
Boots	5,111	11,573	Saddles	1,026
Shoes	8,178	1,315	Wood & other lumber	691
Coal	tons 217	1,636	Snuff	lbs. 1,700	337
Paper	8,289	Lead	1,100	47
Tin ware	2,471	Iron in bars	27,791	986
Books and maps	12,987	Flax and hemp bags ...	250	60
Nails	lbs. 38,286	1,952	Umbrellas	168	181
Oysters	2,134	Earthen and stone ware	1,232
Drugs	3,423	Trunks	90	280
Medicines	2,109	Candles, sperm.	lbs. 280	85
Tar	bbls. 326	1,520	Fruit trees	498
Tallow	66,827	5,275	Skins and furs	49,000	908
Corn	bush. 92,021	52,068	Castings	4,700	176
Potatoes	646	194	Bricks	27,000	111
Rice	50	1,172	Flour-barrels	600	117
Soap	lbs. 14,967	672	Satinet	yds. 800	400
Iron manufactures	25,324	Beef	bbls. 56	810
Cottons	27,517	2,344	Oil-cloth	826
Do., white	36,972	3,089	Oakum	bales 2	86
Carpeting	2,425	2,385	Beans	bush. 25	23
Brooms	doz. 46	163	Ale	bbls. 35	215
Furniture	11,479			
Hides	268	1,024			
Biscuit	bbls. 16	50			
			Total value		\$992,406

ABSTRACT OF FOREIGN MERCHANDISE IMPORTED FROM CANADA IN THE DISTRICT OF BUFFALO
CREEK, N. Y., FOR THE YEAR ENDING DEC. 31ST, 1853:—

Articles.	Quantity.	Value.	Articles.	Quantity.	Value.
Iron, pig	tons 205	\$3,269	Walnut lumber	ft. 1,646,662	13,353
Iron, Scotch	1,378	21,309	Shingles	3,042,050	2,910
Iron, scrap.	lbs. 102,788	569	Staves	35,105	189
Skins, deer, undr'ssed ..	40	8	Boat knees	295	32
Fur skins	85	49	Firewood	cords 276	287
Lumber, pine.	ft. 39,005,821	183,165	Lath	1,847,700	1,005
Do., dressed	474,887	3,037	Railroad ties	27,983	4,189
Timber, do.	121,868	4,841	Barrel hoops	11,000	22
Do., oak	399,499	22,609	White wood	ft. 908,771	3,443
Plank do	1,070,948	7,766	Maple lumber	1,592	264

Articles.	Quantity.	Value.	Articles.	Quantity.	Value.
Oak pilesft.	82	42	Flour, b'kwheat .cwt.	162	206
Poles	800	46	Shortstons	65	1,045
Ash lumber.....	19,299	95	Crockerycrates	126	4,212
Spars	3	9	Honeylbs.	20	3
Cedar posts.....	264		Eggsdoz.	3,086	264
Hides, greenNo.	1,022	160	Carpetingyds.	18	7
Sheep skins.....	40,162	12,657	Grass seedbush.	606	1,059
Wool.....lbs.	32,888	6,670	Personal effects.....		2,933
Alebottles	72	9	Old copper.....lbs.	3,661	455
Gingalls.	1,094	374	Stave belts....cords	7	7
Sherry wine...casks	20	664	Brown sugarlbs.	19,707	613
Brandygalls.	1,209	1,207	Canal boatsNo.	7	1,657
Butter.....lbs.	107,427	12,178	Woolen cloth...yds.	14	14
Cheese.....	2,902	271	Buffalo robes.....	2	20
Bacon.....	498	63	Saddlery, harness...		49
Beef.....	2,885	141	Fur skins, undr'd.lbs.	1,141	123
Rags.....	42,021	881	Potatoes .. .bush.	112	36
Wheatbush.	8,668	6,575	Beeswaxlbs.	124	13
Barley.....	4,289	2,168	PlowsNo.	2	19
Corn.....	156	46	Hornstons	4	49
Oats.....	6,236	1,324	Gun stocks.....	18	3
Flour.....bbls.	142	881	Steam boiler.....	1	412
Fruit.....boxes		126	Sizing scraps...cwt.	61	76
Horses.....No.	83	4,607	Wagon spokes... ..	3,000	18
Cattle.....	410	4,046	Scow boats.....	2	513
Hogs.....	2,067	3,186	Flaxseedbush	40	31
Sheep.....	554	1,227	Manufactured hair..	3	3
Poultry.....		99	Beans.....bush.	3	3
Hay.....tons	58	413	Blankets.....	3	8
Fish.....	3,523	64	Manufactured cotton.....		17
Stone.....cords	55	131	Castingslbs.	250	9
Clay.....bbls.	20	2	Manufactured iron ..	800	92
Wagons.....	8	483			
Shoddy.....lbs.	891	37	Total value.....		\$392,719

THE CANALS. The frequent breaks which have occurred in the Erie Canal during the past summer, and the length of time it has taken to repair them, have operated most unfortunately for the interest of Buffalo, and for the revenues of the State. We have already alluded in another part of our review to the mischief entailed upon all classes of our citizens by these untoward events. We have every reason to hope that another year will see the Canal kept in thorough repair, and that those breaks, which have proved almost ruinous to our forwarders, will be of seldom occurrence hereafter.

The speedy enlargement of the Erie Canal may now be considered a question finally triumphant in our State. The fact has firmly impressed itself upon the minds of all that the Canal must be enlarged. Those who are alive to the best interest of the State care not by what means that enlargement is accomplished, so long as it comes with as little delay as possible. Out of the vast store-houses of the West, down the broad highway of the Lakes, pours the produce of the richest agricultural region of the Union. It touches the borders of our State, and the vast stream is suddenly checked, to be squeezed and dribbled through a narrow channel, until it reaches the seaboard cities. It is absolutely necessary that this evil should be remedied, and unless the means of conveyance through our State be made more ample, the trade which nature has designed to bestow upon us will be directed into artificial channels.

That the enlargement of the Canal is now a fixed fact, is a matter of sincere congratulation to Buffalo, and indeed to the entire West, and especially to the lake cities, whose growth and commercial importance are, in a measure, dependent on the facilities afforded for the rapid and economical conveyance of merchandise and produce between the lakes and the Eastern seaboard. To the construction of this Canal the city of New York is more indebted than to any

other cause for the unprecedented growth which has made her first among the cities of the Union, and to the same cause may be assigned the reason that Buffalo has progressed so rapidly within the past few years.

A broad and reliable highway for the transmission of produce to the East at the lowest possible rate will soon be open, and every western man will appreciate the benefits which must accrue to himself thereby. The restriction which has been placed upon trade between the West and the East seeking its natural channel—the evil consequences of delay upon the road—the necessity of sending forward property by hazardous and unnatural routes, will no longer exist; and with a reliable and sufficient thoroughfare between Lake Erie and New York, capable of conveying all the produce which arrives at Buffalo, at a low rate, to tide water, who can predict the impetus which will be given to western progress, and the advantages which will be derived by her enterprising people? The southern, or New Orleans route, has long enjoyed exclusively the transportation of the great staple products of the South and Southwest, viz., tobacco, cotton, and hemp, over the northern route. That the northern route by the canal is the most economical in cost of transportation, by far the most expeditious as to time, and much the safest as to the dangers and risks of navigation, is well known. The Louisville shipping merchant, and the commercial community generally, are satisfied of the advantages of the canal and lake route, as is evinced by the large number of packages of every kind of merchandise that are daily landed on our docks during the summer season marked and destined for St. Louis, Mo., Nashville, Tenn., Louisville, Ky., Cincinnati, and Chicago, and for other commercial points throughout the South, Southwest, and Northwest. The transportation of every hoghead of tobacco, and of a fair share of cotton and hemp, the three staple products of Kentucky, might be secured through the Erie Canal, if but a single effort were put forth to accomplish it. Nor would the advantages which would accrue to Buffalo from this vast carrying trade cease here. For the very same means we employ to secure the transportation of the Kentucky tobacco by the lake and canal route, will control the Missouri tobacco, which is equal to fifty thousand hogheads annually. We have on a former occasion given comparative tables to show that by the route via Buffalo and the Erie Canal, there is a difference in the cost of transportation of \$4 50 per hoghead of tobacco, and \$1 45 per bale on cotton, in favor of that route over the southern route. Twenty thousand hogheads of tobacco and fifty thousand bales of cotton might be diverted from the southern route during the coming season, and made tributary to our canal revenues, if proper steps were taken to secure it. Over two hundred and fifty thousand tons of freight are within the reach of the Erie Canal from the Southwest alone yearly, and we trust that proper and early steps will be taken to invite and secure this vast carrying trade, and that our forwarders, merchants, and the various transportation companies navigating our lakes and canals will hold forth such inducements as are wholly within their control, and by establishing as low a rate of freight as practicable on property coming from the points designated and going to tide water, as will induce the southern shippers to avail themselves of the advantages of this route.

The annexed table will show some of the leading articles ascending the canal and landed at Buffalo during the past three years:—

	1851.	1852.	1853.
Merchandise	101,430,029	132,308,044	121,929,535
Sugar	27,561,641	28,912,488	22,356,618
Molasses	19,546,896	14,305,967	15,480,124
Coffee	16,724,141	9,824,477	9,827,942
Nails, spikes, and horse-shoes	8,135,389	4,772,489	7,206,847
Iron and steel	6,440,041	11,794,300	18,669,738
Railway iron	46,876,427	123,743,264	144,985,854
Crockery and glass ware	18,059,790	11,672,849	12,313,359
Sundries	14,023,659	2,502,669	16,128,368

The value of the exports by canal, as made up at the Collector's office, is \$22,652,408, on which tolls were collected amounting to \$695,364 71.

Below we give a comparative table showing the quantities of some of the leading articles which have been first cleared from Buffalo during the past three years:—

	1851.	1852.	1853.
Flour	bbls. 1,102,852	959,114	658,354
Pork	22,997	63,708	86,085
Beef	58,032	81,073	49,346
Wheat	bush. 3,668,005	4,759,381	4,958,818
Corn	5,789,842	4,883,346	3,118,691
Oats	1,198,200	2,106,799	1,163,599
Barley	295,779	370,772	257,238
Rye	15,317	98,756	59,727
Tobacco	lbs. 2,544,375	10,239,580	3,391,133
Whisky	galls. 2,111,530	2,678,930	1,837,711
Hemp	lbs. 943,557	1,283,197	676,317
Butter	1,693,497	1,197,829	739,192
Cheese	5,002,054	3,842,894	2,055,737
Wool	7,867,967	4,868,941	4,262,356
Boards and scantling	ft. 47,264,623	48,661,299	61,885,663
Staves	No. 75,927,659	83,130,747	76,066,058
Sundries	12,885,854	11,561,111	9,056,076

We have taken ten of the principal articles which have been transported by railroad to New York, articles which are generally shipped by canal, but which, owing to the breaks, have been sent forward by railroad, and we find that on these articles alone the State has lost tolls to the amount of over \$110,000.

The value of imports, as made up at the same office, is \$64,612,102, with an aggregate tonnage of 438,786.

The whole amount of tonnage delivered in Buffalo for the last five years is as follows:—

1849	tons. 211,047	1852	tons. 337,620
1850	260,923	1853	438,786
1851	237,341		

Being an increase in 1853 of 101,166 tons over 1852.

A gratifying feature in the business of the canal, as presented by the above figures, is the almost incredible increase in the tonnage of some of those articles of heavy freight—particularly railroad iron, in which article there is an increase of 21,242,570 lbs. The several lines of railroad have also brought to this city during the year about 5,000,000 lbs. But while there is a handsome increase in heavy freight, it will be seen by our tables that this description of goods which are mostly carried by railroad, exhibit a slight falling off from last year's figures. Among the articles of up-freight, such as molasses, coffee, nails, spikes, horse-shoes, iron, steel, crockery, glass-ware, and sundries, there has been an increase from the figures of 1852, while there has been a slight decrease in sugar and merchandise.

In down-freight there has been a falling off in the articles of flour, corn, oats, barley, &c., with an increase in pork, beef, bacon, lard, &c. This decrease in flour, however, is easily accounted for by reference to the tables showing the amount of produce which has been transported by the railroads. It will be seen that the New York Central and Buffalo and New York City Railroads have carried from Buffalo over 280,000 bbls. of flour, 13,000 bbls. pork, 26,000 bbls. of beef, 13,561 bbls. of whisky, 4,136,700 lbs. of butter, 2,282,850 lbs. cheese, and 3,711,500 lbs. of bacon. One great reason which may be assigned for the large increase in the quantity of produce transported by the railroads during 1853 over any previous year, is the frequent interruptions to navigation by breaks in the canal, and which rendered shipping by that channel uncertain.

The business done by the Forwarding Association of Buffalo is a very large proportion of the business done on the canals of the State. The returns which we give below only take in the up-freight of merchandise brought from tide

water to Buffalo, of which the Association have transported 126,065 tons, paying tolls to the amount of \$378,195. It is safe to say that of the gross articles of coal, pig iron, railroad iron, car-wheels, marble, &c., which are not included in the table of up-freight, that the Association have brought 74,000 tons of this description of freight, paying tolls on it to the amount of \$72,000, or paying of the upward tolls \$450,195.

In down-freights the same parties have controlled and transported from Buffalo and Tonawanda over one million tons, on which, at the least calculation, tolls have been paid to the amount of \$774,400—showing that canal tolls have been paid by the association of over \$1,224,595, or nearly one-third of the entire business of the canal.

Sixteen of the principal forwarding houses of Buffalo have formed themselves into an association for mutual benefit. The following are the different lines, the number of boats owned and run by each line during the past season, with the upward tonnage of merchandise:—

Names of Line.	No. of boats.	Up tonnage.
American Transportation Company	45	12,313.19
Western " "	44	10,605.22
Troy and Western Line	42	11,082.32
Merchants' Transportation Line	41	12,798.48
New York and Cincinnati Line	41	11,768.39
Union Transportation Company	37	9,213.86
Western States Line	34	8,288.19
Eckford Line	34	6,677.89
Griffith's Western Line	33	4,827.59
Fulton Lake Boat Line	33	10,068.29
New York and Mississippi Line	33	5,104.77
Troy and Erie Line	32	4,627.81
Western Lake Boat Line	30	8,089.41
Clinton Line	28	4,621.61
New York and Indiana Line	27	2,702.92
New York and Lake Erie Line	24	3,279.92
Total	554	126,064.86

Many of the boats belonging to the Association are of the enlarged size, and cost from \$1,200 to \$2,500 each; but the average value of all the boats is about \$900, which would make the total number of boats worth about \$498,600, or half a million. There are also a large number of boats owned in Buffalo, which are not connected with the Association, and are known as "wild boats." Some parties own three or four and others ten or twelve, and a large number of single boats are owned by their Captains; but as they do not run in any regular line, they are not connected with the Association. From the best information we could obtain, we would put down the number of wild boats owned in Buffalo at one hundred, and average their value at \$400, which would make them worth about \$40,000; or the whole number of boats at 654, of the aggregate value of \$538,600. A large number of boats owned at Rochester, and other points on the canal, run here during the season, of which we have no account.

CANAL BOAT BUILDING. There has been unusual activity in the boat-yards throughout the past year, and particularly during the present winter.

At Van Slyck's yard there were built during the year 1853, 28 boats, averaging 110 tons each, which would make 3,080 tons, and which cost \$30,000. There are now on the stocks at his yard, 30 boats building for our forwarders, and averaging 120 tons each, which would make 3,600 tons, and which cost \$75,000. At Howells & Co.'s yard, during the last year, 2 boats were built of 125 tons each, and which cost \$2,700. This year they are building 15 boats averaging 120 tons each. They have also lengthened some twenty more boats.

The new boats which are now on the stocks in Buffalo, and which will be completed by the opening of canal navigation, will aggregate about 6,720 tons, and this does not include a number of boats which will probably be built, or the

large number of boats which are being enlarged. This branch of mechanical business is now carried on in Buffalo to as great an extent as in that of any other on the line of the Erie Canal. This increased tonnage of boat building in Buffalo, results from the completion of a line of enlarged locks on the Erie Canal, through from Lake Erie to the Hudson. These boats of the enlarged size run freely now through the whole length of the Erie Canal, carrying upon an average 25 to 35 tons more than the largest boats which can pass the old locks on the Oswego Canal.*

The commercial interests of Buffalo, as connected with the Lakes and Canals, are the very life-blood of her prosperity and success, and it is, therefore, a matter of pride and satisfaction to all that these branches have been prosperous during the past season. Notwithstanding the extreme pressure in the money market which prevailed during the fall, there was but one isolated case of failure in these departments of Commerce, and that one only temporary; and this fact speaks volumes for the high character and stability of those interested and engaged in them. Thus Buffalo takes a front rank among her sister cities, for the prudence, sagacity, and stability of those of her business men, who are identified with her chief and most prominent interests.

ART. IV.—THE MINERAL AND OTHER RESOURCES OF THE WEST.

PERRY COUNTY, INDIANA.

TO FREEMAN HUNT, *Editor of the Merchants' Magazine.*

CURIOSITY and business have, during the last five years, led me into nearly every region of the great Mississippi Valley, from the sugar regions on the Gulf, to the resorts of the lumbermen in the pineries of Wisconsin and Minnesota. Its agricultural and mineral resources—particularly the latter—have been the objects of attention and study. As I am no speculator in lands and mines, I can impart what knowledge I have gained without fear of personal loss.

The proposition proclaimed by Carey in opposition to the long-received theories of Ricardo and Malthus, and recently sustained by Mr. Smith in his *Manual of Political Economy*, that the inferior lands are first occupied by the pioneers, is a fact that strikes one throughout the whole West—at the South and the North. The oldest settlements are always found upon the thinly-wooded and comparatively barren hill lands, or upon the dry and upland prairies. The sandy plains and pine barrens of Georgia, Alabama, Florida, and Mississippi, received the first emigrants. The first homes in Texas were built on the upland prairies—studded with their little islands of timber, that gave illimitable ranges to stock, and sustained here and there a small patch of corn. The smoke from the first log cabins on the Mississippi River ascended from the high clay and rocky bluffs on its shores, around which are now the poorest soils. In Arkansas and Missouri the first settlers are found among the pine lands and hills, still in the hunter state, their civilization and their lands but a little more, if any, advanced or improved than they were the day they became squatters thereon. On the Ohio, the truth of the position is more apparent. The original pioneers selected Wheeling, Marietta, Limestone, North Bend, and Vevay, as their first town sites, in the poorest agricultural regions on the river; and the first population along the whole river spread itself over the hills, and cleared their first fields and

* For a statement of the imports and exports at Buffalo by Erie Canal, during 1853, see *Merchants' Magazine*, for February, 1854, vol. xxx., pages 254-256.

patches on the oak knobs and thin soils of the uplands, where twenty acres now are not worth one acre of the rich bottoms which the first settlers rejected at a price a little more than the surveyor's fees for locating. And now along the whole extent of the Lower Ohio, the deserted and falling log cabin of the first settler is found by the side of some gushing spring among the hills—his little patch grown up to briars and bushes, and surrounded by a forest as desolate and silent as when it was first disturbed with the stroke of the woodman's axe. Or, if it be still inhabited, it is encompassed by a sickly patch of corn, the soil of which is too poor to tempt the speculator to enter it over the squatter's head, which is still covered with a coon-skin cap, and his feet with moccasins.

This country has on its rugged hill sides hundreds of these crumbling and deserted memorials of the early pioneers. George Ewing, brother of the Hon. Thomas Ewing, of Ohio, was among the first settlers in this region, and located himself on a tract of land—when he had the selection of all the richest bottom lands in the country—which, at this day, is worth but little more than he paid the government for it, forty years ago; and the field where he buried the father and mother of one of the most eminent men of his country, is fast returning to its original wilderness state. And yet George Ewing was a man of intelligence, and of a sound judgment and sagacity, and though less cultivated, was in native powers not inferior to his brother. He with his father cut the first wagon path into Wheeling, and was among the first white men that crossed the Ohio. He lived first near the rich valley of Muskingum; then in sight of the teeming lands of the Scioto; and removed successively through the richest regions of Ohio, Kentucky, and Indiana, always in advance of the tide of emigration, having the first choice of all the lands on the river; and yet, at his death, there was not an acre of any of the lands he had possessed worth double the price he had paid the government for it. These are remarkable facts in the history of the first settlers, and difficult to be accounted for except on the grounds assigned by Carey and Smith.

These hills, whose limpid springs, babbling brooks, and thin forests, first attracted the attention of the early emigrant from the mountain and hill sides of the North, and which have been passed by by the second tide of wealthier emigration, and which, till recently, have cast the dark shadows of their unbroken forests over the placid bosom of the Ohio, in moonlight and sunshine, while the rich bottom lands at their base have become cleared and populous, and high priced—are now in their turn attracting the attention of that class that follow when the farmer has prepared the way of life, and whose advent makes a new stage in the progress of wealth and civilization. The manufacturer and mechanic are coming, and are looking to these hills, not for their soil nor running streams, but for the elements of a power and wealth buried in their bowels, more valuable than the deepest soils of the fattest lands.

The hills that gave a solitary home to the first pioneer and the hunter and which have been neglected by all who followed them; whose recesses up to this day could be penetrated only through unbroken forests or by rugged bridle paths, are about to be intersected by railways, and their sides begin to gleam with the fires of the furnace, the forge, workshop, and factory, and these valleys will become the seats of thrifty manufacturing towns. What vast developments of power and wealth have the progress of the arts and sciences within the last fifty years made! If they but continue to ad-

vance with the same step for the next half century, the powers of the imagination, in its most uncontrolled flights, will form no conception of the happy condition of the millions that will be spread over these hills and along the rich alluvials of the Ohio. Our present wealth, luxury, and refinement—proud as we are of it—will seem to the men of the coming generation as the coarse poverty and barbarism of the people of England in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries do now to us.

There is no higher display of God's munificence on earth than is exhibited in the natural resources of the Ohio Valley. Have they been reserved and hidden from the sight of men till the time had come when science, and knowledge, and experience, had rendered man capable of drawing from them all their riches and benefits? If there was a Providence—as Mr. Everett says—in reserving this continent from the knowledge of the Old World through the long past, till man had attained a stage in his progress which fitted him to fill the new sphere which God designed him to act on this new-found land, we may read perhaps a like care in the superintending government of man's advancement, in reserving these riches till he was fitted to use them aright.

From the remotest sources of the Alleghany and Monongahela rivers, to the mouth of the Scioto, and from a short distance below the Falls to near the mouth of the Ohio, along more than a thousand miles of navigable waters, and through a country capable of producing more human food than any region of equal extent on the globe, the earth is filled with the richest deposits of coal and iron, the great elements of material power and wealth. There is no formula of figures by which to calculate the growth of wealth for a given period; nor is it in the power of numbers, if we could state the quantities, to predict the sum of wealth and population that half a century will bring to these mineral regions.

And here, too, is to be demonstrated, and the great moral question settled, by a display in collateral lines, the difference between free educated labor and ignorant and involuntary service. Rude agricultural labor on virgin soils affords but poor means of comparison between the classes of labor; but as communities advance, and their prosperity and progress depend upon labor in the mechanical arts and a scientific agriculture, which are themselves advancing and requiring increased skill and knowledge, the difference between intelligent educated labor and ignorant degraded labor will become more manifest. Both sides of the river being equally favored by the gifts of nature, the argument of facts, which will soon be made, along the opposite banks of the Ohio, will carry irresistible conviction to the country, and the discussions of economists, moralists, and politicians will have little weight against the practical settlement of the question to be made here within the next ten years. Cannot the enthusiasts summon patience to wait in silence for the result?

Perry, with the roughest surface and thinnest soil, perhaps of any county in the State of Indiana, which, till within eight or ten years, has supported a sparse population of about 400 voters, in the rudest mode of life and comfort, with 14 small stores, and a capital of \$15,000 employed in merchandising, promises soon to become one of the wealthiest and most populous counties in the State. Its hills are filled with rich deposits of coal and iron that are attracting the skill and capital of New England, while the emigrant from the Rhine is clothing their sides with small farms and vineyards. Cannelton, a few years since, contained but a few rude dwellings erected

for the shelter of some forty or fifty of that rough, hearty, and nomadic race of English coal diggers, who, in all their moral characteristics and roving and improvident habits, resemble sailors, and seldom make a permanent home in any locality: and the town might be said to be without any fixed population. Now it has a population of near 3,500, and there are 700 children enrolled on the trustees' books as admissible to the public schools. There are now five extensive coal mines in operation. It has the largest and best built cotton factory west of the mountains, which has been two years in very successful operation, demonstrating the advantages of the West over the East for the production of the heavier cloths. The difference in the cost of the cotton delivered for this mill and the cost of the raw material for a mill of the same capacity making the same description of cloth at Lowell, was found, by the books of the two establishments at the end of the last year, to have been about \$27,000 in favor of the Western mill. The difference in the cost of fuel was about \$1,200 in favor of the same mill. These admissions were made by Eastern capitalists who were stockholders in both mills.

Another factory has been begun on a tract of land near Cannelton, entered by Robert Fulton in 1813, and the company, who are Eastern capitalists, have assumed the name of the Fulton Manufacturing and Coal Company. These large establishments will be succeeded by others, and workshops of different kinds are growing up within it; and the town, if characterized by the enterprise and spirit which have brought it forth from the wilderness, will be the Lowell of the West.

Cannelton, however, has but few, if any natural resources, more than many points above and below her; but she has got the start—she has secured an invested interest among those who will not allow her to remain stationary. Her men know how to make money, by spending it freely. The investments already made are to be made to pay larger dividends still, by further installments to be paid on the capital stock. She has also gathered the skill and labor adapted to her interests, and fixed them around her by making them homes.

Hawesville, opposite, has all the resources of Cannelton, but her enterprise, industry and skill is limited to coal digging. The mechanical labor from the free States does not incline to the south side of the Ohio.

In the rear of Cloverport, twelve miles above Hawesville in Kentucky, is a most remarkable vein of coal. The deposit is found in the neighborhood of the Pretroleum, or Tar Springs, and is from three to four feet in thickness. It has the external appearance of Cannel coal, but from its peculiar qualities it seems like indurated bitumen or pretroleum. It is highly inflammable, and a large lump of it will take fire from a taper. The coal has been known to the inhabitants of the vicinity for many years, but its location of seven miles from the river discouraged all enterprises to bring it into market, till it attracted the attention of some gentlemen who had been to school at the coal business in the Alleghany mountains of Pennsylvania, who were not frightened at the obstacles of a few hills intervening between the mines and the river. They have now a railway winding around the hills, nine miles in length, nearly completed. Their possessions cover over 6,000 acres of land, and after an expenditure of near half a million of dollars to develop the buried wealth, they will before next autumn offer for sale in New York a most remarkable and entirely new variety of bituminous coal. It is to be sent by the way of New Orleans, and will cost the proprietors, laid down in

New York, seven dollars per ton. It will not be sold to consumers for less, it is said, than \$15. It is designed especially for the use of the Upper Ten. Gas lights can be dispensed with in a room where this coal is burnt in an open grate, for its flame eclipses all other light.

Owensboro', below Hawesville, in Davies County, is equal to any of its rivals in mineral wealth, and excels them in agricultural resources, yet she does not advance in the industrial interests. A most painful illustration of the difference in the prosperity of the two places, on opposite sides of the river, is exhibited in the fact, that while these lines are being written, a large, well built, well filled, and well equipped cotton factory, located on the banks of the river, at the mouth of a coal mine, surrounded by every local and natural advantage, with machinery built by the best mechanics at the East, and which has never run over six months, after having been closed two years, without finding a purchaser or lessee on any terms, is now being dismantled, and the building turned into a tobacco stemery, while the Cannelton Cotton Mill is paying a very large per cent profit to its stockholders. There is certainly something in the genius of the place, or of the people, that shapes these different destinies of the two localities.

Still further down the river, coal develops itself at Newburg, on the banks of the river, and iron ore is found a few miles in the rear. Ten miles below, in the immediate vicinity of Evansville, coal has just been discovered, and along the banks of the canal, at a distance of twenty to fifty miles from the city, the richest beds of iron ore in the West have been discovered, in digging the canal, in the immediate vicinity of good coal. But at present the citizens of Evansville are too much absorbed in the pursuits of trade to give attention to the more durable, though slower gains of mechanical and manufacturing industry.

Henderson, yet further down, has coal beds recently discovered, but no iron ore, in her immediate vicinity. On the Saline and Tradewater are extensive coal mines, that have been worked for many years; are well known, and are in the midst of rich and abundant iron ore deposits. But none of these places, except Cannelton, have drawn around them the labor and skill to develop their wealth; their resources lie almost as unproductive as when the Indian trod the soil. Cannelton has gained so great an advance of all of them in population, and the varied skill and experience of her labor, that she will in the future have no rival.

But there is a country, on Green River, whose deep waters are of as pure an emerald hue as the grass on its banks, that surpasses all the other localities in mineral wealth, yet undeveloped, and almost unknown beyond the limits of its own region. The river has been locked, and dammed, and made navigable for steamers of 400 tons for more than 200 miles into the heart and richest district of Kentucky. Its banks, for 130 miles from the Ohio, exhibit the outcrop of three distinct veins of excellent bituminous coal, one three and a half feet in thickness and another seven feet thick. A few miles back from the river, to the west, extensive beds of rich iron ore have been opened. Where the coal and sandstone cease, as the traveler passes up the river, the blue limestone appears and forms a surface and soil equal in beauty and fertility to the lovely regions about Lexington. Between the waters of Barren River and the Cumberland, there is a tract of country embracing five or six counties, that in the charms of its landscapes and the fertility of the soil is unequaled even at the West.

The banks of Green River are sparsely peopled; for distances of ten and

twenty miles scarcely a human habitation is seen. The few villages on its banks are new and straggling towns, built principally near the five locks, and as each lock has a lift of 15 or 20 feet, the rush of the current of this large river over the dam forms at each a picturesque and magnificent waterfall. And where the lofty mural cliffs of limestone rise in perpendicular walls for hundreds of feet on both sides, the scenery rises to the grand, and almost to the sublime; and the citizens of these quiet hamlets are regaled, morning and evening, day and night, with the sublime anthem of nature, the perpetual roar of falling water.

The trade of the river now employs four steamers, besides large numbers of flatboats, that are employed in taking the tobacco, pork, and corn of the rich agricultural region around the head-waters of the river to a market. The country immediately on its banks exports but little of any species of product as yet.

A few years ago a huge smelting furnace and iron works were erected in Muhlenberg County, a few miles from the river, by two enterprising Scotch iron masters. The change in the tariff and the decline of the iron business closed the furnace, and ruined the proprietors. It has recently passed into the hands of Mr. Alexander, a very wealthy resident of Kentucky, of Scotch descent, who has inherited a very large estate, embracing an extensive iron works, in Scotland. He has added, by recent purchase, many thousand acres to the original furnace tract, and has also acquired a large and very valuable coal mine on the river. It is understood he is to form a large Scotch settlement on these lands, by transferring the operatives from the iron works in Scotland to the banks of Green River. And with a fortune that yields an annual income, it is said, of \$80,000, he will erect iron works more extensive than any in this country—if the course of legislation at Washington gives any promise of stability in the iron business for the future. Mr. Kinselman, an English gentleman, is opening an extensive coal mine near the same locality, and he is looking ultimately to the iron business for the return of his capital. Thus, we see, if Congress will but yield to the almost unanimous wish of the country, and place the iron interest on a stable basis for the future, by reasonable protection, English capital and English labor would flow in streams over wilderness and solitary places of our country, illuminating our rugged, barren hill-sides and mountains with furnace fires, and making them groan in the parturition of emboweled wealth. If it be easier to support ten men at home than one in England, by the transportation of our food to him, we could, by bringing the English and Scotch laborers in iron to our own ore-beds, get ten times the quantity of iron we now procure for the same expenditure of our labor. And Green River, (as well as other tributaries of the Ohio,) now wild and solitary, would present a continued scene of life and industry, from its mouth to its source; and instead of the clouds of wild fowls that now cover its surface, it would be crowded with steamers and craft floating on its stream—a larger annual amount of newly-created wealth to the country than flows from the entire profits of its whole foreign Commerce.

F. Y. C.

ART. V.—WEALTH AND CAPITALISTS OF BOSTON.

THE RICH NOT MADE SO BY LEGISLATIVE FAVOR.—HON. NATHAN APPLETON—SAMUEL APPLETON
—HON. ABBOTT LAWRENCE—AMOS LAWRENCE—HON. EDMUND DWIGHT—HON. THEODORE LYMAN
—JOHN MCLEAN—JOHN LOWELL, JR.—HON. THOMAS M. PERKINS.

MASSACHUSETTS, following the example of New York, a few years since passed a general law for incorporating banks, and another for manufacturers; but in the former State they do not exclude special acts for the same purposes. Indeed, we believe, these general laws are not used in Massachusetts, and that special acts continue to be granted; the majority of the people preferring the old system of special legislation. But it is not our purpose to discuss the merits of the two systems. We refer to it at this time for the purpose of introducing to the readers of the *Merchants' Magazine*, the interesting and sensible remarks of the Hon. THOMAS G. CARY, of Suffolk, in the Senate of Massachusetts, on the general laws for establishing manufacturing corporations, on the 1st of March, 1853. Mr. Cary's remarks were made for the purpose of showing that the general law tended to deter capitalists from taking shares in corporations in that State, and to do away with the impression of some, that the rich men of Massachusetts, and particularly of Boston, had made their money through the favor of the Legislature, in granting them acts of incorporation for manufacturing purposes; and that they (the rich men) are therefore bound to do with it somewhat as the Legislature directs. This supposition Mr. Cary considers an "egregious error." We quote from that part of his speech which refers to the capitalists of Boston. It will be seen by the notes below, that a majority of the men whose names we have placed at the head of this paper, have passed away, two or three, during the last year, or since the remarks of Mr. Cary were delivered in the Senate of Massachusetts.

I deny that there is any partiality shown here towards the rich, or that the rich have been made so by the favor of the Legislature. Who are they? Look up and down this Beacon-street where we are, and look over this city and regard the men individually. They will be found to be almost invariably what are called "self-made men," who began life with small means, most of them engaging in foreign trade, going abroad for information, even among nations the most uncivilized and barbarous, and using that information with sagacity and success. They have collected here the wealth that they have gained elsewhere, much of it on the other side of the globe. They have employed that wealth here, by renewing their enterprises in navigation from our ports, in a way that has given impulse to all business, and increased the value of every farm in the State, and of every helper and steer that helps to stock it. They have invested part of the property thus gained in factories, and given employment to tens of thousands. They have taken shares in railroads to open the interior, and in other public works. They have founded hospitals, and aided in the cause of education. While the stock-lists of the corporations would show numbers of such men, I might with confidence challenge any one, to show us in the list of proprietors of all the millions of property at Lowell, five men of any considerable property who can be said to have made their money by manufacturing.

I have in my mind, at this moment, a man* well known in the councils of the nation for ability and wisdom, who lives in a beautiful house near here, drives a fine carriage, or his wife does, and has everything about him that intelligence can desire from wealth. He is president of two or three large manufacturing corporations, and concerned in others. And this man lived in the same house and in the same way, rich from his own acquisitions, when all Lowell was farm-

ing land, and not a spindle had been seen there. He did not grow rich by manufacturing, then.

A brother lives near him,* of whom much of this may likewise be said, except that, now too far advanced in age to take any share in the business of life, he is chiefly known for acts of wide beneficence; like another individual† of the same description, whose late residence is within sight from this building, and who has closed a long life of usefulness and benevolence, in peace and charity with all mankind, to the sorrow of the unfortunate, while we have been sitting here. Both of the them might well say, on the bed of death, in the language of Job:—

“When the ear heard me, then it blessed me; and when the eye saw me, it gave witness to me. Because I delivered the poor that cried, and the fatherless, and him that had none to help him. The blessing of him that was ready to perish came upon me; and I caused the widow’s heart to sing for joy.”

A similar instance is found in the distinguished statesman who lately represented the country as our ambassador in England.‡ Many people would, doubtless, listen with amazement to the assertion that he did not derive his wealth through a commercial house always depending solely for business on its agency for factories. Yet it is perfectly well remembered that the house in question for some time declined any such agency, from an unwillingness to relax its attention to foreign business, which had made it rich. We must look behind any action of our Legislature, then, to discover the origin of that wealth from which he has founded and munificently endowed the Scientific School at Cambridge; contributing liberally, all the time, to other public institutions and works of charity.

Who was it, I might ask, too, who led the way in establishing Normal Schools among us? A merchant§ who had, no doubt, much to do with manufactures, but who was rich before. From whom have we had a house, I might almost say a palace, for the blind? From another, of whom the same might be said, with more emphasis. Who gave a hundred thousand dollars in one sum to the General Hospital, open to all parts of the Commonwealth, as much as to Boston? Another|| who had nothing to do with factories.

If we look into the second generation, to see what the heirs of such men do with the money which they inherit, we find instances that tend to establish a high character for them as a class. The man¶ who moved forward, hand in hand with the Commonwealth, to establish the State Reform School at Westborough, was the son of one who had acquired all his great wealth by ships sent on long voyages into distant seas; and thus a part of his earnings was finally disposed of. Another,** whose wants were provided for by inheritance, but whose active and sagacious mind had increased his property by his own enterprise, dying far away, childless and alone, when the ties of conjugal and paternal affection had been dissolved in the death of those who looked to him for protection, was found to have provided in his latest aspirations for the improvement of his native State. A noble fortune was left as a foundation for the Lowell Institute, which draws to us the philosophers and men of science of the Old World, while it elicits and liberally compensates the efforts of our own learned men. It may be heard from your teachers’ institutes, ††, with what gratification and improvement an occasional lecture is received there from distinguished professors, who never would have visited this country but for that munificent bequest.

And such instances taken for illustration, do not show half the aggregate of general contribution for liberal purposes in the whole community, made up by the combined action of those who readily follow such examples, but necessarily contribute in smaller sums. With such a spirit apparent, when we hear it said that privileges are sought for by the rich to the exclusion of the poor, and when capital is represented as arrayed in opposition to labor, it really seems as if it might be said with greater truth, that the capitalist thinks more kindly of the

* The late Samuel Appleton.

† The late Amos Lawrence.

‡ The Hon. Abbott Lawrence.

§ The late Hon. Edmund Dwight.

¶ The late John M’Lean, Esq.

¶ The late Hon. Theodore Lyman.

** The late John Lowell, Jr. Esq.

laborer than laborers do of each other, except when they combine against their employer as if he were a common enemy. If our laws were framed to keep property in unbroken descent, by entailment and the like, there might be a reason to regard it with jealousy. But the accumulation of one man is divided and subdivided by those who follow him, and soon disappears in the mass.

It is not my purpose, in the allusions that I have made, to claim for those who become rich among us any merit for fanciful or poetic disinterestedness. But it has been said here within a twelvemonth, by a late colleague of the senator, and a political associate of his, that it is not desirable to have large fortunes among us. Now, a true statement of facts tends to show that there is nothing in the mode of acquisition or the use of wealth here that is detrimental to anybody; while there is much, both in the acquisition and use of it, that promotes welfare and prosperity throughout the State, even if it be true that the rich manage their affairs merely as men of business, looking to their own advantage alone.

Suppose the largest stockholder in the corporations at Lowell,* for instance, instead of liberally aiding others, (as he has,) had never assisted any one purposely, but looked solely to his own interest. Was it not, still, a benefit to the community, that he acquired property elsewhere and planted it there in a way that tended to advance the value of land in that vicinity a hundred fold or more, to increase the numbers and activity of our population, and, of course, to increase our political influence, as well as the general valuation the State? Before the commencement of this century, in a spirit of vigorous enterprise, he went abroad into various countries, established a commercial house at Canton, (from which a score of rich men have issued since, and brought back fortunes to the United States,) and was one of the foremost to open a great trade, which enables us to say, among other things, when our prosperity is attributed to the staples of the South, that of the wealth of New England, more, probably, has been gained in carrying rice from the islands in the Indian Ocean to feed the Chinese, than from the rice of the Carolinas. In a long series of enterprises fitted out from here, he gave advantageous employment to various branches of business; and in investing the property thus acquired, helped to furnish profitable occupation in factories for which millions on millions have been paid in wages; while no laborer there, man or woman, ever lost a dollar that was due for work, by failure or delay of payment. Does any man believe that if the action of such an individual, for half a century and more, could have been withdrawn from here, and his enterprises had been carried on from New York or Philadelphia, this State would be the better for his absence?

Again, if any great undertaking should be stopped for want of means—if a railroad company, for instance, should become embarrassed, and requiring the aid of capital for relief, should apply to some agent in financial transactions to procure money to a large amount, to whom would such an agent be likely to resort? I do not mean for assistance to a company who build their road where it never can be profitable to the stockholders, though it may increase the value of property all along its line, but to aid a company who can offer good security and liberal remuneration for a heavy advance. The agent or broker would be very likely to go to some man who in youth began the business of life by a sea voyage as mariner, rose to be master of a ship, went among savages, perhaps, on the shores of the Pacific, at the risk of his life, traded for sea-otter skins, or the like, carried them to China, converted them into teas and silks, which he brought home, and renewing his enterprises from here, sent others to repeat the operation. Do we find cause to regret that his accumulations are here as a resource in such emergencies? Certainly not. By arbitrary restrictions we may drive capital away, but when it is gone and our people begin to feel the want of its presence, they will hardly believe that their true interests have been consulted by this course.

* The late Thomas H. Perkins.

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LIBEL TO RECOVER VALUE OF IRON LOST BY THE BREAKING OF THE PIER.

United States District Court. In Admiralty, (February, 1854.) Before Judge INGERSOL. Francis Vose and others vs. Thomas Allen, owner of the bark *Majestic*.

The libel in this case is filed by Francis Vose, Charles L. Perkins, and John B. Kettell, against Thomas Allen, the owner of the British bark *Majestic*, for the recovery of the value of a quantity of pig iron, shipped at Belfast, Ireland, by Ralston, Goodwin & Co., on board the *Majestic*, to be carried to the port of New York, and there, at said port, the dangers of the seas only excepted, to be delivered to the libelants or their assigns. About fifty tons of the iron, of the two hundred and twenty tons so shipped, was lost at the port of New York, while the *Majestic* was discharging her cargo, by the breaking and sinking of a pile-wharf or bridge upon which the iron was placed when being landed from the bark, and the claim of the libelants is, that it was so lost before it was delivered to them by the carrier, according to the terms of the bill of lading executed at the time the iron was shipped at Belfast.

The bill of lading, which bears date the 26th day of April, 1852, and was signed by the master of the *Majestic*, at Belfast, acknowledges that Ralston, Goodwin & Co. had shipped in good order on board the *Majestic*, then lying in the harbor of Belfast, two hundred and twenty tons of pig iron, to be delivered in the like good order at the port of New York, the dangers of the seas only excepted, unto the libelants or to their assigns, he or they paying freight at the rate stated in the bill of lading. The bill of lading is in the ordinary form, with the addition of the following clause, inserted in the margin thereof, namely—“Iron to be discharged by the consignees in five days after vessel's arrival at New York, or pay demurrage of \$25 a day after that time. The above clause means five working days from the time the vessel is ready to discharge.”

The libelants claim, that by virtue of this additional clause in the margin of the bill of lading, they have more rights in reference to the unloading of the iron than they otherwise would have had; that by this additional clause they had five working days, from the time the vessel was ready to discharge, to unload the iron themselves; that they had a right, by the stipulation contained in this additional clause, at any time within such five working days, to designate and select the wharf at which the iron should be discharged; that before the expiration of the five days the iron was lost; that the wharf at which the cargo of the *Majestic* was discharged was selected by the captain of the bark, without their concurrence; that they requested the captain to discharge at another wharf, which, though it was occupied at the time, would have been vacant before the expiration of such five working days; and that, therefore, no discharge of the iron at any wharf selected by the captain without their concurrence, within such five working days, although the captain may have given them notice of such discharge, would in law be deemed a delivery of the iron to them, according to the terms of the contract, as expressed in the bill of lading.

The necessities of the case, as I view it, upon the evidence as exhibited on the trial, do not require the expression of an opinion upon this claim as made by the libelants. The consideration of it, therefore, will be waived, and the case be considered as it would be were not this additional clause appended to the bill of lading; and, in conformity with the claim of the respondent, that will be viewed as the contract of the parties, which is imported by a bill of lading in the ordinary form, governed by the same legal rules in its construction as would govern the instrument upon which the libel is founded, were not the additional clause appended to it.

In order to come to a correct result, it is necessary to ascertain what the facts in the case are; what the law is on the subject of the liabilities of common carriers of goods for hire—when they begin, how long they continue, and when they cease, or when the carrier discharges himself of the custody of the goods in his character of common carrier, and then apply such law to such facts in the case.

The *Majestic* having, on the 26th of April, 1852, received at Belfast the 220 tons of pig iron for the purposes named in the bill of lading, soon thereafter sailed for her port of destination. She arrived in the harbor of New York on Sunday the 20th day of June of the same year. The vessel was consigned to Edmiston & Brothers, the agents of the ship. The iron was consigned to the libelants. On Monday, the 21st of June, the captain of the *Majestic* reported himself to the libelants, and inquired of them where he was to discharge. The libelants sent their clerk to find a vacant berth. No berth vacant on the North River could be found below pier No. 39. The libelants requested that she might discharge somewhere between Washington Market and the Battery, and named piers No. 8 and No. 9; but neither of these piers was then vacant. The captain, on Tuesday the 22d of June, hauled the vessel into pier No. 39, which was not between Washington Market and the Battery. On the 22d of June, Edmiston & Brothers wrote to the libelants, informing them that the *Majestic* was berthed at pier No. 39 North River, and was prepared to discharge cargo, and requested them to furnish them (Edmiston & Brothers) with a permit for the iron, that the vessel might commence landing it as early as possible. The Custom House permit was furnished by the libelants and sent to Edmiston & Brothers on Wednesday the 23d of June, and on Thursday the 24th the captain began to discharge the cargo. Pier No. 39 was about 300 feet long. The outer end of it, for about 40 feet, was solid. The remainder was what is called a bridge pier, built on piles. The vessel continued to discharge the iron on the pile part of the pier, until about 11 o'clock A. M. of Friday, at which time the first lieutenant of police of the 5th ward, in which ward pier 39 was, observing a greater quantity of iron on the pier than he thought was safe, spoke to the assistant dock-master, and told him to go on board and order them to stop discharging. The assistant dock-master immediately went on board, and ordered those on board not to land any more iron on the pier. They for a time ceased. On the afternoon of the same day the dock-master noticed that they were again discharging, and being of opinion that the pier, with the quantity of iron then on it, was not safe, ordered those on board to knock off, and to cease discharging. Upon this order being given, those on board again stopped. On the morning of Saturday, the 26th, they again went to discharging the iron, and continued till about 11 o'clock, when, from the weight of the iron on the pier, the pier broke down, and the iron upon it was precipitated into the water, and about fifty tons of it was totally lost. At the time the pier broke down, there was about 150 tons of the iron upon it, and placed in such a manner that it caused the breaking of the pier. On Friday, the 25th day of June, in the forenoon, a written notice was sent to the office of the libelants by Edmiston & Brothers, notifying them that the pier, upon which a portion of the iron had been then discharged, was supposed to be in danger, and requesting them to remove it. After this notice, although none of the iron was removed from the pier, an additional quantity was discharged from the vessel and placed on the pier, until 150 tons had been there placed, when the pier fell. At the time the order was given, on Friday, to stop discharging, there was 70 or 80 tons of iron on the pier. Pier 39 was a well-built pier, but the quantity of iron placed upon it, and the manner in which it was placed upon it, it being accumulated too much in one spot, caused the disaster by which a portion of the iron was lost.

There is some contradictory evidence in regard to a portion of the facts as above set forth, but the preponderance of testimony is such that there can be no reasonable doubt in regard to any of them.

These facts being found, the next question is, what is the law on the subject of the liabilities and responsibilities of common carriers of goods for hire in a

case of this kind; when they begin, how long they continue, or when they cease; or when the carrier discharges himself of the custody of the goods in his character of common carrier? These liabilities and responsibilities commence when the goods are placed on board the carrying vessel; they continue during the voyage, and until the goods are safely delivered to the consignee at the port of discharge, or are placed in such a situation at such port of discharge, as either by law or general usage is equivalent to such delivery to the consignee, and until they are either delivered to the consignee, or are placed in such a situation at the port of discharge, as is either by law or general usage equivalent to such personal delivery, the carrier is not discharged of the custody and safety of the goods, but is responsible for the same. It is claimed by the libelants that the iron, though safely carried to the port of discharge, was not at such port either safely delivered to them, or safely placed in such a situation as is, either by law or general usage, equivalent to such personal delivery.

The law and general usage in this country in regard to foreign voyages, or goods brought from a foreign country, seems now to be well settled, and appears to be this: that under a bill of lading in the ordinary form, the carrier is not bound to make a personal delivery of the goods to the consignee; but it will be sufficient if he lands them in a proper manner at the usual wharf or proper place of landing, and gives due and reasonable notice thereof to the consignee. Such landing, with such notice, is equivalent to a personal delivery to the consignee. (Angell and Ames on carriers, sec. 310.)

Such landing place, in order to make it equivalent to a personal delivery, must be a proper place for landing, and the landing must be made in a proper manner. No unsafe landing place can be a proper landing place, and no unsafe mode or way of landing can be considered as a proper mode or way of landing the goods.

It has been sometimes claimed, when the question of the liability of common carriers has been presented before courts, that where the consignee is not the owner of the goods, but is a third person, the rule is a little different; and that in such a case the carrier, when there is no personal delivery, in order to make his responsibility cease, must not only land the goods in a proper place, and give due and reasonable notice thereof to the consignee, but that he must also, after the goods are unladen, secure them by housing or otherwise, if no consignee appears, or if he neglects or refuses to accept the goods. The district judge of the Southern District of New York, when the case of the *Grafton* was before him, as appears by the report of the case in 1 Blatchford, Circuit Court Reports, p. 175, decided, "That in a well settled course of trade, such as existed in New York, in relation to coasting vessels, the delivery of a cargo on the dock, with notice to its owners of the time and place of unloading them, placed the cargo at their risk, and discharged the vessel from liability. But that in case the cargo was addressed to a mere consignee, the vessel would be under the further obligation to secure the property, after it was unladen, if no consignee appeared, or if he refused to accept the goods."

There are many good and substantial reasons why the carrier should be required to do more, where there is no personal delivery in the case, when the consignee is a third person, than should be required of him when the consignee is the owner of the goods. But waiving the consideration of the question whether a different rule exists in the one case from what exists in the other, I will consider this case as if the consignee were the owner of the goods.

The carrier may not be bound under a bill of lading in the ordinary form to unlade his cargo at the place selected by the consignee. If, however, the carrier selects the place to land the goods, he must select a good and safe and proper place for landing them. What would be a good and safe and proper place for landing one kind or quality or quantity of goods, would not be a good and safe and proper place for landing another kind or quality or quantity of goods. Has then the carrier, in this case, done that which is equivalent to a personal delivery of the iron to the consignee? If he has safely unladen it in a safe and proper place, and in a safe and proper manner, and given due and reasonable notice to the consignee, then he has. If he has not, then he is liable for the damage which has been sustained by the loss of the iron,

occasioned by the breaking of the pier upon which it was by the carrier placed.

On Friday, the 25th of June, at about 11 o'clock, A. M., about seventy or eighty tons of the iron had been discharged and placed on the pier. The assistant dockmaster, seeing that quantity on the pier and the manner in which it was placed, and that those on board were in the act of discharging more, and apprehending danger, notified the captain of the *Majestic*, not to discharge any more on the pier. For a time those on board the vessel stopped discharging. In the afternoon of the same day, however, they recommenced, when the dockmaster, apprehending danger, ordered them to stop. On the morning of Saturday, the 26th of June, they continued to discharge the iron on the pier, up to about 11 o'clock, when about 150 tons of it having been placed on the pier, the pier, from the weight of the iron upon it, broke down, and the iron was precipitated into the water, and a good portion of it, about fifty tons, was lost. The captain in his deposition says, that on Saturday they continued to discharge until the pier fell. The captain was warned of the danger, but persisted in overloading the pier, by which the pier broke. The pier was safe and proper for a certain quantity of iron, but not safe and proper for 150 tons placed on it in the manner that this iron was placed. For the quantity placed on the pier, in the manner in which it was placed, it was not safe, and therefore not a proper place. Of this the captain was notified before the danger had been encountered. The carrier, therefore, has not safely landed the iron in a proper and safe place, and in a proper and safe manner for the quantity that was discharged. He has not, therefore, done that which is equivalent to a personal delivery of the iron to the consignee; for, to do that, it is necessary that he should have landed it in a proper place, a place proper for the amount that was landed. By his not complying with the stipulation contained in the bill of lading, to safely discharge the iron in a proper place, the loss has happened, and he must be answerable for the damage which has been occasioned.

It is contended, however, by the respondent, that the claim for this damage is not such a claim as can be enforced in a Court of Admiralty; that the cause of action, if any exists, had its origin on the land; that the damage occurred by an act done on the land and not on the water. The claim which the libelants make is for damages for the violation, by the respondent, of a maritime contract, entered into by him to safely carry the iron from Belfast to New York, and there safely deliver it to the libelants. And the ground of complaint is, that it was not safely delivered. After the decision in the case of the *Grafton*, above referred to, it is not necessary to dwell on this point. That case was a libel *in rem*, filed in the District Court, and upon a bill of lading for the carrying of a quantity of hemp from New Orleans to New York, and there safely delivering it to the libelants. After the hemp was discharged on the wharf, and not before, a portion of it was damaged by rain, and for that damage a recovery was had.

The decree of the court therefore is, that the libelants do recover the amount of the damage occasioned to the iron by the breaking of the pier, and that it be referred to a commissioner to ascertain and report what that damage is.

For libelants, Messrs. Benedict, Scoville and Benedict; for respondent, Messrs. Owen and Betts.

LIABILITY OF COMMISSION MERCHANTS.

We find the following important decision by a Select Committee of the Cincinnati Chamber of Commerce, as arbiters, reported in the *Price Current* of that city. In publishing this decision of the majority of the committee, our cotemporary remarks:—

"The question decided by this committee is one of more than ordinary importance, and the decision has therefore attracted pretty general attention. The point of the matter in dispute was: Whether a commission merchant, whose universal custom had been to guaranty all time sales, became liable to his principal when the sale was made, or when the goods were delivered and the notes given. In this case the sale was made while the goods were in transitu, and on four months' time from the date

of delivery. Before the goods were received, the purchaser failed, and the property was re-sold by McCutcheon & Collins, at a price below the original sale; and for this difference Wann & McBirney sought to hold the former liable, on the ground that they became principals the moment the sale was made. The majority of the committee did not sustain this claim, and thereby decided that a guarantor does not become liable until the goods are delivered and an equivalent received therefor, unless it should appear that the agent did not exercise due caution as the standing and credit of the purchaser. There may be objections to the establishment of a custom that will accord with this decision, but it is, so far as we can see, less objectionable by far than that urged by the minority. We also published this week a full report of a decision rendered by the majority and minority of another committee, with reference to the responsibility and liability of commission merchants. More than a year ago we urged the importance of a convention of representatives of the Chambers of Commerce, or Boards of Trade, of the several leading cities of the United States, for the purpose of agreeing upon a 'Code of Customs,' and considering such other matters connected with the general interest of the mercantile community as might be suggested, and every week's experience strengthens our convictions that there is an existing necessity for such a convention. The laws of the several States are in most cases indefinite with reference to matters which are frequently disputed between merchants, all of which might be settled promptly and amicably had we a 'Code of Customs.'

Select Committee of Chamber of Commerce.—Wann & McBirney vs. McCutcheon & Collins.

This suit is brought to recover difference in price between first sale to arrive, and sale after arrival—the parties to whom first sold failing before delivery. From the statements, letters, &c., submitted in evidence before the committee, it appears that the invoice was sent on the 24th January, 1853, of a shipment of 300 hhd. of meat to McCutcheon & Collins, of Philadelphia, for account Wann & McBirney, of Cincinnati. On 28th, Wann & McBirney dispatch McCutcheon & Collins to sell invoice to arrive. The party make sale to a Baltimore house, (Cassard & Co.,) and advise owners on 2d February. Some of the property arrived at Baltimore on 9th March, consigned, as was the whole lot, to McCutcheon & Co.'s agents, Lippincott & Co. As but a small part arrived, it was left in depot until shipment was completed. Between the 9th and the 17th, 2,700 hams were taken out of depot by Cassard & Co., McCutcheon & Collins not knowing how they got them, or by whose authority they were taken. No delivery was made by McC. & Co. or their agents, (as Mr. McCutcheon avers,) of the shipment. So soon as McC. & Co. heard of the failure of Cassard & Co., Mr. McCutcheon went to Baltimore, and finding 2,700 hams meat in Cassard's house, took from them an equivalent in price, substituting canvassed hams at the market price.

It would appear that Cassard & Co. bought the invoice at four months' time from delivery, and resold the lot, or portion of it, to Theo. Perry & Co., of New York, at a profit. When Cassard & Co. found they could not comply with the contract, they returned in value what they had taken, and allowed Lippincott & Co. to send on the meat already in Baltimore, to Perry & Co., giving McCutcheon & Collins advantage of the trade they (Cassard & Co.) had made. The bills of lading were transferred to McCutcheon & Collins, and proceeds went to their credit. The balance of shipment came on in lots and was sold, part in Baltimore and part in Philadelphia, for account Wann & McBirney.

The sales of some parts (sides) paid a profit over first sale, and others a loss, on the shipment—say \$600.

Are McCutcheon & Collins bound to pay the loss?

First. It is urged that McCutcheon & Collins having invariably charged guaranty commission on all sales of property, and having notified owners of sale, they became the guarantors for price, as also money for property.

Second. That as the party at Baltimore, who purchased, succeeded in getting a part of the property, though without consent or advice of the party selling, it proves a delivery, and hence a sale.

The Committee hold—

1st. No equivalent having passed for the property sold, nor a delivery made, no guaranty can attach. (See statute Frauds and Perjuries in Ohio and Pennsylvania: "That no action shall be brought whereby to charge the defendant upon any special promise to answer for the debt, default, or miscarriage of another person, unless the agreement upon which such action shall be brought, or some memorandum or note thereof, shall be in writing, and signed by the party, to be charged therewith, or some other person thereto by him or her lawfully authorized.")

2d. As the agents could not in justice to themselves as honorable men, have been benefited by any advance in the market on the second sale, they are not liable for loss; for until property was sold and delivered, or passed beyond their control, they were merely agents.

3d. The agents become principal when they guaranty the owners against loss by note, or that which they took as an equivalent for the article sold.

4th. A guaranty commission does not cover loss by spoiled meat, as the agent is authorized to buy to fill the contract at the expense of owner.

5th. It cannot be for price, in case of failure on the part of purchasers to comply, (unless the sale be made to an irresponsible person, notoriously so, showing a want of caution and proper diligence on the part of the agent,) provided the party was good and in fair standing at the time of sale.

6th. A guaranty is only necessary and expected when the article sold passes into other hands, beyond the control of the agent or owner; when notes pass, or some equivalent, by virtue of which the purchaser is entitled to demand the property; for while the property is still in the possession of the agent, it is in the hands of the owner.

7th. By the contract for the sale to the house in Baltimore, the agents may have passed the right of property, but the right of possession was still in McCutcheon & Collins, as agents of Wann & McBirney, and they are entitled to that possession until the purchaser completed the sale by delivery of notes, or payment of cash.

Before the delivery of the property, the circumstances of the parties changed, by the insolvency of the purchasers. The agents are not bound to take the notes, and had they done so, would not have acted with proper prudence and discretion; therefore, (guaranty or no guaranty,) they would have been responsible.

McCutcheon & Collins acted simply as agents of Wann & McBirney. No improper conduct is charged against them—no want of business tact or discretion—but, on the contrary, they acted in good faith. As long as the property was in their hands, it was there as the property of Wann & McBirney, until a complete sale had been made, by delivery of notes or payment of cash. The property had been delayed some three weeks, and but little had arrived when the purchaser failed. Had it arrived, as was supposed, by due course of transportation, property would have been delivered, notes taken, and all parties satisfied. But before it all arrived, purchasers failed, and did not claim the property; but, on the contrary, declared their inability to take it; put McC. & C. in possession of an equivalent for what had been taken out of R. R. depot; transferred to them a contract they had with a New York house, by which McC. & C. got an advance in price over the first sale, for what had arrived at Baltimore; and throughout the whole transaction evidently declared, by their acts, that they were not the owners of the property. At this very time, it appears the creditors of the Baltimore house were seeking some clue, some misstep taken by McCutcheon & Collins, by which they might take this property as the assets of Cassard & Co. It was not done, and we must conclude there was no ground to base the claim upon, or it would have been attempted.

McCutcheon & Collins knowing the position and circumstances of Cassard & Co., are not bound to take their notes, and had they done so, would have been responsible, (without having guarantied,) because having acted without proper discretion and prudence, they deprive Wann & McBirney of the primary security, viz., the note of a solvent purchaser. Wann & McBirney expected and were en-

titled to a double security, that of the purchaser and McCutcheon & Collins, as guarantors; and with this right to the security of both purchaser and the agent as guarantor, and the purchaser having failed before delivery, Wann & McBirney had the right to stop the property in transitu, which was done in good faith by their agents, or rather stopped by consent of both parties before the completion of the contract.

The only ground on which McCutcheon & Collins could be held responsible, we think would be gross neglect in making a contract with a firm whom they know to be insolvent; or in selling to one whom an ordinarily prudent merchant would not have trusted.

Nothing before us warrants such a conclusion. We decide Wann & McBirney have no claim upon McCutcheon & Collins for loss in sale of property.

All of which is respectfully submitted.

JAMES F. TORRENCE, } Majority of
HENRY NYE, } Committee.

PROMISSORY NOTE—DISCOUNTED.

In the Supreme Judicial Court, (Portland, Maine, Oct., 1853,) Judge Wells presiding. President, Directors, and Company of the Atlantic Bank plaintiffs *vs.* George W. Woodman *et al* defendants.

This was an action brought to recover a note for \$4,192 00, given by True & Woodman to Beebe, Morton & Co., of Boston, indorsed by the said Beebe, Morton & Co., and discounted at the Shoe & Leather Dealers' Bank, Boston. When near its maturity, it was sent by Longley & Co.'s Express for collection of True, Woodman & Co. After passing through several hands, it was finally discounted at the Atlantic Bank; at least the plaintiffs endeavored to prove it was there discounted. It appeared in defence that the President of the Atlantic Bank discounted the note without the concurrent jurisdiction of the Directors, which was finally ratified a few days after by the Directors, and the note entered on the Discount Book. The ground of defence was that the bank obtained the note by fraudulent means, and discounted the same without the action of the Directors as above stated, until a number of days subsequent to its reception. The defendants also offered to introduce testimony tending to show that the bank had exceeded its limits, by issuing more bills than allowed by its charter, which testimony was rejected by the court as irrelevant; that the bank was amenable to the laws, and was liable to a forfeiture of its charter for over-issues, and ought to have its charter taken away by the legislature if it had violated it. But that constituted no defence for the collection of its note. Verdict for plaintiffs, for the full amount of note and interest.

NEW LAW OF OHIO RELATING TO DEBTORS.

Under a recent enactment, says the Cincinnati *Price Current*, which is embraced in the code of Ohio laws, a debtor who is suspected of having disposed of his property for the purpose of defrauding his creditors, can be brought before a probate judge and required to testify under oath with reference to the matter. The first case under this law, that we have heard of, was brought in this city during the last week, and the result was the defendants gave security for the payment of the debt, although they failed some time since and were reported to be worth nothing. This law we regard as the most useful in our statute books. It had become absolutely necessary to have an enactment of the kind to check the dishonest practices of the day. It was so common for people to enrich themselves by failing, that what might be considered an honest failure rarely occurs, in the estimation of business men generally. The practices of knaves carried away the entire ground upon which confidence in, or sympathy for honest men, who proved unfortunate in business could be based. Thus, as is always the case, the latter have suffered equally the penalty due only to the

former. Fearful, indeed, are the inroads that have been made in this way upon mercantile integrity; and none have more reason to be thankful for the law than those who, without dishonest motives, may be compelled to compound with their creditors.

FRAUDULENT MAKING AWAY WITH AND CONCEALMENT OF PROPERTY.

An insolvent had committed several inconsistencies in his schedule. It also appeared that after his imprisonment he had made over his house and furniture to his landlord for an insufficient consideration; and he further refused to lodge a copy of documents connected with a marriage settlement of £300 a-year alleged to have been made to the sole and separate use of his wife. The Dublin Insolvent Debtors' Court held that these circumstances constituted an improper making away and concealment, though no witnesses were called to prove the latter point.—*Belfast (Ireland) Mercantile Journal*.

BANKRUPTCY—WIFE'S ESTATE.

The wife of a bankrupt had had money settled on her for her separate use, with remainder to her children. The wife was dead, as were her trustees, and it was held that the children were entitled to prove as for a debt, without the appointment of new trustees; but that the shares of certain children deceased should go to the bankrupt's estate, he having become, by the death of the children, entitled to such shares.—*Belfast (Ireland) Mercantile Journal*.

COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE AND REVIEW.

GENERAL COURSE OF TRADE—STATE OF THE MONEY MARKET THROUGHOUT THE COUNTRY—SPRING TRADE IN DOMESTIC COTTON AND WOOLEN FABRICS—THE PRINCIPLE OF ADMITTING RAW MATERIALS DUTY FREE—PROSPECTS FOR IMPORTED FABRICS—REVIEW OF THE BANK RETURNS IN NEW YORK CITY—COMPARISON OF THE RETURNS OF THE PHILADELPHIA AND NEW YORK CITY BANKS, AND OF THE PENNSYLVANIA AND NEW YORK STATE BANKS—CHANGE IN THE CONDITION OF THE NEW ORLEANS BANKS—CASH REVENUE AT NEW YORK—RECEIPTS OF CALIFORNIA GOLD, AND DEPOSITS AND COINAGE AT THE PHILADELPHIA AND NEW ORLEANS MINTS—FOREIGN IMPORTS AT NEW YORK FOR JANUARY, IN GENERAL MERCHANDISE AND DRY GOODS—EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS—COMPARATIVE SHIPMENTS OF PRODUCE—SUPPLY OF CEREALS IN EUROPE—COMPARATIVE PRICES IN GREAT BRITAIN, WITH THE EFFECT OF ADVANCED RATES UPON GENERAL CONSUMPTION, ETC., ETC.

THE interests of Commerce in every department have been more or less affected by the continuance of European troubles, and during the past month there has been no material change in the general current of events. Money has been steadily supplied outside of the banks in nearly all the principal markets at 9 a 12 per cent, but the demand at this rate has been active, and sufficient to absorb the floating means. In Cincinnati higher rates have been paid, especially for short loans; and part of the time borrowers in the street have been charged at the rate of 1½ a 2½ per cent a month. Toward the close of the month there was less stringency at most points in the interior. In some places a large amount of funds is locked up in produce, which cannot be moved before the opening of navigation; but the money has been distributed among the producers, and will soon find its way into the natural current again. At the South, cotton has come forward more freely, and the supply of money at the principal points has not

been sufficient to meet the necessary advances. Large shipments of specie to the receiving ports have been made from the North, but not enough to keep up the price of foreign exchange, which has been heavy and declining. The Spring trade has been dull and backward. In domestic goods there has been less regularity. Plain cottons have mostly maintained their value, although styles not recognized as standard have been offered more freely. Printed calicoes have been active, but holders have crowded their stock, the cost of the goods being too high to be kept long on hand. The usual annual sale of printed lawns at New York was well attended, but the goods averaged only 11½ cents per yard, against 13½ cents, the average of the previous year. Even at this decline, however, the manufacturers realize a small profit, the expenses of the sale being less than attends the distribution in small lots, while two objects are accomplished which help the progress of the work. The importations are kept down, and the goods, by their cheapness, are thrown into general consumption. The domestic woolen interests continue depressed; plain broadcloths of all-wool fabric sell slowly, and yield a poor return to the manufacturer; while fancy cassimeres and satinets are reduced by the competition among producers, until the profit of previous seasons is nearly lost. In this connection, the manufacturers are looking with unusual interest to the action of Congress in regard to the proposed revision of the tariff. Secretary Guthrie received high commendation from nearly all classes of the American people by the principle which he assumed in his annual report, that raw materials and manufacturers' dyestuffs ought to be admitted duty free. The chief, and nearly the only limitation to this principle which he proposed, was in wool, upon which he still recommended a duty of 25 per cent, except for qualities valued less than 10 cents per pound. The further limitation to this clause contained in the proposition, as finally laid before the Committee of Ways and Means, would make even this exception of little value to manufacturers. We believe that the entire abrogation of *all duties upon raw materials* would give an impulse to American industry and enterprise which it could receive from no other source. The admission of wool free of duty would create such a demand for this material for manufacturing, that even wool-growers themselves would share in the common benefit. Wool is not an article whose production can be increased rapidly and indefinitely. As the population of the world extends, the natural tendency is toward increased cultivation of the soil, at the expense of flocks and herds. Sheep, in particular, are most troublesome stock in thickly-settled communities, and the demand for the meat must always compete with the demand for the fleece. If wool were admitted free, after the first effect of the disarrangement was over the price would probably steadily advance, both here and abroad. Our manufacturers could better afford to pay even an exorbitant price for it, if there were no duty on the receipts, because foreign manufacturers would have to pay the same.

The Spring trade from importers' hands has been irregular, and most descriptions of foreign goods have been crowded upon the market, either from private hands, or through the auction rooms.

The banks have made some slight attempts at expansion, but have generally contracted again if they found their deposits or specie decreasing. At New York the progress has been the most uniform, as will be seen by the following table, containing the weekly averages, compiled from official returns :—

WEEKLY AVERAGES OF NEW YORK CITY BANKS.

Week ending.	Average amount of Loans and Discounts.	Average amount of Specie.	Average amount of Circulation.	Average amount of Deposits.
August 6, 1853.....	\$97,899,499	\$9,746,441	\$9,513,053	\$60,579,797
August 13.....	94,683,282	10,653,518	9,451,943	57,457,504
August 20.....	94,074,717	11,082,274	9,389,727	57,307,223
August 27.....	92,387,618	11,319,040	9,427,191	57,431,891
September 3.....	91,741,338	11,268,049	9,554,294	57,502,970
September 10.....	91,108,347	11,380,693	9,597,336	57,545,164
September 17.....	90,190,589	11,860,235	9,566,723	57,612,301
September 24.....	90,092,765	11,340,925	9,477,541	58,312,334
October 1.....	90,149,540	11,231,912	9,521,665	57,968,661
October 8.....	89,128,998	10,266,602	9,673,458	57,985,760
October 15.....	87,837,273	11,330,172	9,464,714	59,068,674
October 22.....	85,867,931	10,303,254	9,388,543	55,748,729
October 29.....	83,400,321	10,866,672	9,300,350	53,335,462
November 5.....	83,092,630	11,771,880	9,492,158	55,500,977
November 12.....	82,882,409	12,823,575	9,287,629	56,201,007
November 19.....	83,717,622	13,691,324	9,151,443	57,446,424
November 26.....	84,802,530	13,343,196	9,032,769	58,673,076
December 3.....	85,824,756	12,830,772	9,138,586	58,435,207
December 10.....	86,708,028	12,493,760	9,075,704	57,838,076
December 17.....	87,865,073	12,166,020	8,939,330	58,312,478
December 24.....	88,766,402	12,074,499	8,872,764	58,154,303
December 31.....	90,162,106	11,068,478	8,927,013	58,963,976
January 7, 1854.....	90,133,887	11,506,124	9,075,926	60,885,363
January 14.....	90,010,012	11,894,453	8,668,344	58,396,956
January 21.....	90,068,738	11,455,156	8,605,235	59,071,253
January 28.....	89,759,465	11,117,958	8,642,677	58,239,577
February 4.....	90,549,577	11,634,653	8,996,657	61,208,466
February 11.....	91,434,022	11,872,126	8,994,083	61,024,517
February 18.....	92,698,085	11,742,384	8,954,464	61,826,669

We annex a comparison of the condition of the banks in the cities of Philadelphia and New York at the date of the last quarterly returns:—

	Philadelphia, 16 banks. Nov. 15, 1853.	N. York, 57 banks. Nov. 15, 1853.
Capital Stock.....	\$10,900,000	\$47,000,000
Loans and discounts.....	22,438,854	83,717,622
Specie and specie funds.....	5,413,596	13,691,324
Circulation.....	5,227,170	9,151,443
Deposits.....	14,086,827	57,446,424

The third item under the New York banks includes only gold and silver, while under those of Philadelphia, it includes much of other assets.

The following will show the comparative position of the banks throughout the States of New York and Pennsylvania at the dates mentioned; the totals include also the items given above:—

	LIABILITIES.	
	Pennsylvania banks. November, 1853.	New York banks. September, 1853.
Capital stock.....	\$19,765,864 36	\$76,692,075
Circulation.....	17,411,970 96	32,762,650
Due other banks.....	4,640,970 42	28,262,667
Due depositors.....	21,667,014 19	77,167,075
Dividends unpaid.....	338,183 86	3,002,614
Contingent fund.....	2,110,679 69	1,414,669
Discount, interest, and exchange.....	736,806 75
Profits.....	609,846 90	10,233,894
Due Commonwealth.....	542,214 79	1,640,650

RESOURCES.

Loans and discounts	\$44,795,834 94	\$149,668,119
Specie	7,774,790 68	12,909,249
Due from banks	5,875,738 07	13,279,617
Notes and checks of other banks	3,804,401 18	3,208,792
Real estate and personal property	1,007,843 25	5,061,745
Bonds, mortgages, and other securities	821,787 98	6,198,229
Stocks	1,141,649 20	20,787,197
Expense account	77,987 57	864,644
Bills receivable and post notes	365,902 67	145,604
Cash items	485,986 20	17,654,805

The banks throughout the State of New York keep little or no specie on hand, as they redeem almost altogether through the city banks.

The New Orleans banks, in their returns up to the last Saturday of January, show an increase over the totals for December of \$492,540 in circulation, \$230,313 in other cash liabilities, \$324,312 in loans and discounts, \$585,852 in exchange, and a decrease of \$490,644 in specie, and \$393,353 in deposits.

The receipts for cash duties have fallen off during the last week or two, but previously they had largely increased. The following will show the totals for January at the port of New York:—

CASH DUTIES RECEIVED AT NEW YORK IN JANUARY.

Year.	Amount.	Year.	Amount.
1854.....	\$4,379,285 32	1850.....	\$2,948,925 25
1853.....	3,311,137 37	1849.....	1,898,024 12
1852.....	2,600,562 64	1848.....	2,282,638 52
1851.....	3,611,610 04	1847.....	1,422,554 67

The receipts of gold from California since January 1st show a slight decline, as compared with the previous year, the rivers in that section having been low, and the local uses for capital having become more various and absorbing. The following will show the deposits and coinage at the Philadelphia and New Orleans mints for the month of January, 1854:—

DEPOSITS FOR JANUARY.

	NEW ORLEANS MINT.		PHILADELPHIA MINT.	
	From California.	Total.	From California.	Total.
Gold.....	\$259,641	\$319,615	\$4,151,000	\$4,201,000
Silver	1,600	97,212	108,000
Total deposits.....	\$261,241	\$416,827	\$4,151,000	\$4,309,000

GOLD COINAGE.

	Pieces.	Value.	Pieces.	Value.
Double eagles.....	156,850	\$3,137,000
Eagles.....	6,500	\$65,000
Quarter eagles	44,000	110,000	32,632	81,580
Gold dollars	55,808	55,808
Bars	368,883
Total gold coinage	50,500	\$175,000	245,290	\$3,643,271

SILVER COINAGE.

Half dollars.....	66,400	\$332,000	408,000	\$204,000
Quarter dollars.....	72,000	18,000	1,196,000	299,600
Dimes	1,040,000	104,000
Total silver coinage	138,400	\$350,000	2,644,000	\$607,000

COPPER COINAGE.

	Pieces.	Value.	Pieces.	Value.
Cents	152,541	\$1,525
Half cents	55,860	277
			<u>207,901</u>	<u>\$1,802</u>
Total coinage....	188,900	\$525,000	\$3,097,191	\$4,252,073

At the close of our last review there were indications that the increase in the imports, noticed throughout last year, had been checked. During the first few days of January there was a falling off in the receipts even at New York, and the invoices known to be on the way were not considered larger than usual; but before the close of the month the increase again commenced, and thus, at the port of New York, the total imports for January were \$6,166,829 greater than for the same month of 1853; \$8,595,702 greater than for January, 1852; and \$4,139,329 greater than for January, 1851. We annex a comparative statement for the years named:—

FOREIGN IMPORTS AT NEW YORK FOR JANUARY.

	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
Entered for consumption.....	\$12,708,518	\$8,584,311	\$11,563,405	\$15,651,415
Entered for warehousing	1,611,847	1,281,594	642,279	2,271,956
Free goods	937,650	1,041,456	1,202,238	1,395,063
Specie	210,455	104,736	33,048	289,365
Total entered at the port	\$15,468,470	\$11,012,097	\$13,440,970	\$19,607,799
Withdrawn from warehouse.....	1,024,246	1,584,652	1,536,365	2,889,516

There is but little increase in the imports of free goods, and the greatest portion of the excess is in the amount entered directly for consumption. The stock in bond has been reduced, the withdrawals having exceeded the entries, but the business at the warehouse has been very active. Of the increased receipts of foreign merchandise, a much smaller amount than usual is included in the classification of dry goods, the bulk of the increase being in general merchandise:—

FOREIGN MERCHANDISE, EXCLUSIVE OF SPECIE, ENTERED AT NEW YORK FOR THE MONTH OF JANUARY.

	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
Dry goods.....	\$9,372,564	\$7,927,876	\$8,564,818	\$10,232,470
General merchandise	5,885,451	2,979,985	4,843,104	9,375,329
Total.....	\$15,258,015	\$10,907,861	\$13,407,922	\$19,607,799

The business for the coming month will not probably show the same comparative excess, but will hardly be as light as most persons anticipated at the opening of the year. The following will show the classification of the receipts of dry goods:—

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN DRY GOODS AT NEW YORK FOR THE MONTH OF JANUARY.

ENTERED FOR CONSUMPTION.

	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
Manufactures of wool.....	\$1,600,098	\$1,306,322	\$1,614,372	\$1,671,251
Manufactures of cotton.....	1,843,441	1,308,452	1,743,168	2,626,816
Manufactures of silk.....	4,032,002	2,970,633	3,383,165	2,972,961
Manufactures of flax.....	692,138	569,161	870,480	972,844
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	540,204	451,243	478,461	631,879
Total.....	\$8,707,863	\$6,605,811	\$8,089,626	\$8,875,764

WITHDRAWN FROM WAREHOUSE.

	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
Manufactures of wool.....	\$105,827	\$214,102	\$117,711	\$281,406
Manufactures of cotton.....	254,224	280,601	165,387	448,056
Manufactures of silk.....	106,370	291,886	336,582	506,483
Manufactures of flax.....	109,935	121,635	29,965	121,613
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	53,950	22,320	75,096	84,676
Total.....	\$680,306	\$930,544	\$724,741	\$1,387,234
Add entered for consumption..	8,707,883	6,605,811	8,089,626	8,875,764
Total thrown on the market,	\$9,388,139	\$7,536,355	\$8,814,367	\$10,262,998

ENTERED FOR WAREHOUSING.

	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
Manufactures of wool.....	\$139,656	\$184,111	\$72,951	\$239,510
Manufactures of cotton.....	222,412	208,856	103,491	571,470
Manufactures of silk.....	206,005	837,375	233,759	382,693
Manufactures of flax.....	54,355	66,839	11,516	154,213
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	42,253	24,402	58,475	8,820
Total.....	\$664,681	\$1,321,565	\$475,192	\$1,356,706
Add entered for consumption..	8,707,883	6,605,811	8,089,626	8,875,764
Total entered at the port...	\$9,372,564	\$7,927,376	\$8,564,818	\$10,232,470

Large as the imports have been, however, the rate of increase in the exports has been still greater, the total for January showing a gain of 75 per cent over the corresponding total of last year.

EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS FOR THE MONTH OF JANUARY.

	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
Domestic produce.....	\$3,152,744	\$2,419,296	\$2,990,624	\$5,304,203
Foreign merchandise—dutiable...	422,395	358,244	265,730	469,068
“ free.....	51,584	26,693	42,574	71,524
Specie.....	1,266,281	2,868,958	717,679	1,845,682
Total exports.....	\$4,893,004	\$5,673,191	\$4,046,607	\$7,690,477
“ exclusive of specie,	\$3,626,733	\$2,804,233	\$3,298,928	\$5,844,795

By the above it will be seen that the total for January, 1854, exclusive of specie, was \$2,545,867 greater than for January, 1853, \$3,040,562 greater than for January, 1852, and \$2,218,062 greater than for January, 1851. This ratio of increase has continued through most of February, and would have been much larger but for the high prices demanded for breadstuffs, and the limited stock to be had on the northern seaboard. The following will show the comparative shipments of certain leading articles of domestic produce from January 1st to February 18th:—

EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS OF CERTAIN LEADING ARTICLES OF DOMESTIC PRODUCE.

	1853.	1854.		1853.	1854.
Ashes—pots.....bbls	777	670	Naval stores.....bbls	36,447	59,778
pearls.....	10	175	Oils—whale.....galls	7,263	12,949
Beeswax.....lbs	29,954	39,806	sperm.....	131,083	87,033
<i>Breadstuffs—</i>			lard.....	1,326	2,515
Wheat flour.....bbls	188,272	277,232	linseed.....	1,079	317
Rye flour.....	84	2,091	<i>Provisions—</i>		
Corn meal.....	7,597	14,405	Pork.....bbls	6,086	9,179
Wheat.....bush	370,010	676,748	Beef.....	10,836	10,243
Rye.....		162,656	Cut meats.....lbs	400,038	1,423,809
Oats.....	6,050	3,088	Butter.....	107,910	256,190
Barley.....			Cheese.....	923,853	478,591
Corn.....	94,498	610,825	Lard.....	991,529	1,334,675
Candles—mold...boxes	10,568	9,712	Rice.....trcs	2,285	6,244
sperm.....	635	665	Tallow.....lbs	22,738	223,977
Coal.....tons	2,099	3,498	Tobacco, crude....pkgs	2,177	5,792
Cotton.....bales	15,965	39,328	Do., manufactured..lbs	474,132	214,565
Hay.....	797	1,153	Whalebone.....	166,131	128,205
Hops.....	43	103			

This shows a marked increase in nearly every article embraced in the list, and if long continued at this rate would certainly lead to a return of some of the gold which has been shipped hence to Europe during the last year. There is much diversity of opinion in regard to the scarcity of breadstuffs in Great Britain. That the crop has been very short upon the continent all allow, but many maintain that throughout England large supplies have been kept back in the hands of the farmers, who have been looking for higher rates. Our own opinion is, that the falling off in the crop throughout the United Kingdom has not been overrated, but that the supply needed has been over-estimated, few writers upon this subject taking into account the great falling off in consumption which must be caused by the rapid increase in prices. This may be better realized by looking at the following table of comparative prices, which we have compiled from the quarterly reports of the Registrar General:—

Quarters Ending	Average price of wheat per quarter in England and Wales.				Average prices of Meat per lb. at Leadenhall and New- gate markets, (by the carcase.)			
	1852.		1853.		Beef.		Mutton.	
	1852.	1853.	1852.	1853.	1852.	1853.	1852.	1853.
March 31.....	40s 10d	45s 7d	3½d a 5d	3½d a 5½d	3½d a 5½d	4½d a 6½d	3½d a 5½d	4½d a 6½d
			Mean 4½d	Mean 4½d	Mean 4½d	Mean 4½d	Mean 4½d	Mean 5½d
June 30.....	40s 10d	44s 6d	3½d a 4½d	4d a 5½d	3½d a 5½d	5d a 6½d	3½d a 5½d	5d a 6½d
			Mean 4d	Mean 4½	Mean 4½d	Mean 5½d	Mean 4½d	Mean 5½d
Sept. 30.....	41s 2d	51s 10d	3½d a 5d	4½d a 6d	4½d a 6d	5d a 7½d	4d a 6d	5d a 7½d
			Mean 4½d	Mean 5½d	Mean 5d	Mean 6½d	Mean 5d	Mean 6½d
Dec. 31.....	40s 5d	69s 10d	3d a 5d	4d a 6d	4d a 6d	4½d a 7d	4½d a 6½d	4½d a 7d
			Mean 4d	Mean 5d	Mean 5½d	Mean 5½d	Mean 5½d	Mean 5½d

Since the date last noticed, that is, the 31st December, the price has further increased. For the last quarter it will be seen that the average price of wheat was 69s. 10d., against 40s. 5d., or an advance of upwards of 70 per cent. The average price of wheat throughout England for the week ending January 28, was 83s. 3d., nearly one hundred per cent above the price for the corresponding week of 1852. It must be evident to any one at all acquainted with the condition of the laboring classes in the United Kingdom that, with such a heavy augmentation in price, the ratio of consumption must be very greatly lessened, and that the supply needed will fall far short of the difference in the crop which has led to the advanced rates.

JOURNAL OF BANKING, CURRENCY, AND FINANCE.

NEW YORK BANKING DEPARTMENT.

CONDITION OF THE BANKING ASSOCIATIONS, ETC., IN THE STATE OF NEW YORK.

We publish below a summary of the report of the general committee of the Legislature of New York, appointed under a concurrent resolution of the two Houses, passed on the 20th of July, 1853, in pursuance of the Act of May 25th, 1841. The committee ascertained from the books of the Banking Department the amount of circulating notes issued to each banking association and individual banker, and examined and took account of all the securities deposited with the Superintendent of the Department for their redemption. The following is the result of the committee's report:—

The whole number of banking associations and individual bankers doing business under "the general banking law," on the 1st of December last..	263
Banking associations.....	169
Individual bankers.....	94
	<hr/> 263

The number of incorporated banks on the same day was.....	60
	<hr/>

Making the whole number of banks and banking associations ..	323
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The total amount of circulating notes issued to banking associations and individual bankers, outstanding on the 1st day of December, 1853, was \$23,743,716, for the redemption of which securities were deposited and held in trust by the superintendent, amounting in the aggregate to \$24,886,737 30, viz:—

Bonds and mortgages.....	\$5,777,577 39
New York State $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent stocks.....	\$357,600 00
" " 5 " " 	5,687,726 16
" " $5\frac{1}{2}$ " " 	1,264,700 00
" " 6 " " 	3,752,146 26
	<hr/> 10,962,172 42

United States 5 per cent stocks.....	614,300 00
" 6 " " 	4,724,849 02
	<hr/> 5,339,149 02

Canal revenue certificates, 6 per cent.....	1,408,500 00
Arkansas State 6 per cent stocks	327,000 00
Illinois State 6 per cent stocks	646,687 83
Michigan State 6 per cent stocks	172,000 00
Cash in deposit for stocks matured, bonds and mortgages paid, and banks closing business.....	253,650 64
	<hr/>

Amount of securities held December 1st, 1852.....	\$24,886,737 30
	<hr/> 20,230,112 67

Increase of securities for the year ending December 1st, 1853.....	\$4,656,624 63
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Amount of circulation outstanding December 1st, 1853.....	\$23,743,716 00
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Amount of circulation outstanding December 1st, 1852.....	19,159,056 00
	<hr/>

Increase of circulation for the year ending December 1st, 1853....	\$4,584,660 00
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In addition to the securities held in trust for banking associations and individual bankers, as above stated, the following securities have been deposited and are held in trust by the superintendent, under special acts of the Legislature, viz:—

For the Buffalo Trust Company, Buffalo,

Bonds and mortgages.....	\$97,000 00
Buffalo city stocks	3,000 00
	<hr/> \$100,000 00

For the United States Trust Co., New York,

Auburn city stocks 100,000 00

And for sundry incorporated banks, viz:—

Banks.	Stocks, &c.	Rate of Interest.	Amount.	Total.
Bank of Geneva, (late inc'd)	New York State	6 per cent.	\$3,000
Bank of Orange County.....	Canal rev'e cert.	6 "	20,000
Cayuga County Bank	New York State	6 "	22,400
Central Bank, Cherry Valley.....	Canal rev'e cert.	6 "	6,000
Greenwich Bank.....	New York State	5½ "	1,000	
"	"	6 "	3,000	
Seneca County Bank.....	Canal rev'e cert.	6 "	4,000
				3,000
				<hr/> 58,400

RECAPITULATION OF SECURITIES HELD IN TRUST BY THE SUPERINTENDENT OF THE
BANKING DEPARTMENT, DECEMBER 1st, 1863.

For banking associations and bankers	\$24,886,737 30
For incorporated banks.....	58,400 00
For trust companies.....	200,000 00
	<hr/> \$25,145,137 30

It will be seen from the foregoing statement that the *increase* in circulating notes issued under the general banking law during the past year amounts to very nearly five millions of dollars, and that the whole amount of notes of this character now in circulation in this State is but little short of twenty-five millions of dollars.

The only security of the bill holders, say the committee, for this vast amount, are the trust deposits in the hands of the superintendent of this department, for their redemption. A trust of this magnitude should be guarded with jealous care; indeed, it seems impossible to throw around so vast a trust-fund too many checks and safeguards.

From a very careful examination of all the stock securities, as well as of the bonds and mortgages, deposited in this department, the committee are satisfied that they have all been correctly entered and credited to the various banks making the same, and that they are with few exceptions, a safe basis for the issues for which they have been deposited.

While the committee entertain the fullest confidence in the safety of the present system of free banking, they cannot give their assent either to the justice or propriety of engrafting upon it the expiring elements of the old system. The notes of the safety-fund banks, during the continuance of their charters, and while the fund for their contingent redemption remains good, are doubtless as safe issues as were ever authorized by law. The danger and the injustice to which we allude, consists in allowing them to continue their business as bankers, under the "free system," after the expiration of their charters, on their depositing in this department ten thousand dollars, and without compelling them first to call in and cancel their old notes. It seems to be unjust towards the new associations, to compel *them* to deposit securities equal in amount to their circulating notes, while *these* are permitted on the pledge of ten thousand dollars to add a like amount to the one, two, three, and even in some instances, four hundred thousand dollars amount of notes already in circulation, and eminently unsafe to permit the indefinitely continued circulation of these excessive bank issues, upon only ten thousand dollars security. Common prudence demands that a danger of this magnitude should be seasonably guarded against.

A BAKERS' BANK IN FRANCE.

Among the new features of the French money market, is the decree organizing the Bakers' Bank. The bank is to be governed by a director, under the control of the Prefect of the Seine—the director to be appointed by the Minister of Agriculture, Commerce, and Public Works. The object is to extend facilities to the bakers, who

will be entitled to a credit to the extent of his stock on hand. M. De Montulle is named as director or manager, assisted by Count d'Argout, Governor of the Bank of France, M. M. Guillemet, director-general of the caisse d'amortissement, Andouille, director of the financial operations at the Ministry of Finance, Ledayre, president of the Tribunal of Commerce, Germain Thibaut, vice-president of the Chamber of Commerce, and Billaut, the syndic of the Agens de Change of Paris, as members of the consultative committee.

CONDITION OF THE BANKS OF NEW ORLEANS.

STATEMENT OF THE NEW ORLEANS BANKS, CONDENSED FROM THE OFFICIAL REPORT OF THE BOARD OF CURRENCY, FOR THE MONTH ENDING NOV. 26.

CASH LIABILITIES.				
Banks.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Other cash liabilities.	Total cash liabilities.
Citizens'	\$690,810	\$1,108,617	\$1,799,427
Canal	1,788,352	1,322,295	448,148	3,558,751
Louisiana	1,572,399	3,049,171	400,981	5,022,551
Louisiana State	1,698,520	3,467,799	*563,374	5,729,692
Mechanics' & Traders'	1,581,598	253,813	1,835,411
New Orleans	152,770	734,113	8,014	894,897
	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
	\$5,902,851	\$11,263,672	\$1,674,325	\$18,851,729

CASH ASSETS.				
Banks.	Specie.	Loans due within 90 days.	Exchange, etc.	Other cash assets.
Citizens'	\$857,305	\$1,572,166
Canal	1,276,691	3,920,270	621,664
Louisiana	1,804,026	3,850,471	702,669	†1,200,000
Louisiana State	1,992,745	3,667,183	71,334	†944,000
Mech. & Traders'	867,507	**1,803,525	†152,000
New Orleans	331,120	749,716	45,389	\$170,000
	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
	7,128,394	15,563,331	1,441,056	2,406,000
				26,598,781

COMPARISON WITH OCTOBER'S RETURNS.

Banks.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Other cash liabilities.	Total cash liabilities.
Citizens'	Inc. 388,845	Inc. 345,857	Inc. 734,502
Canal	Dc. 45,768	Inc. 58,143	Inc. 61,748	Inc. 85,033
Louisiana	Dc. 41,615	Inc. 58,506	Inc. 83,047	Inc. 99,938
Louisiana State	Dc. 104,490	Inc. 192,337	Dc. 61,857	Inc. 26,260
Mech. & Traders'	Inc. 105,315	Inc. 253,813	Inc. 359,128
New Orleans	Inc. 88,710	Inc. 295,708	Inc. 7,874	Inc. 391,792
	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
Net	Inc. 285,482	Inc. 1,055,866	Inc. 344,125	Inc. 1,696,653

Banks.	Specie.	Loans, etc.	Exchange, etc.	Other cash assets.	Total cash assets.
Citizens'	Inc. 228,110	Inc. 576,764	Inc. 804,874
Canal	Dc. 264,970	Inc. 251,513	Inc. 500,096	Inc. 486,639
Louisiana	Dc. 118,873	Dc. 83,576	Inc. 431,609	Inc. 229,161
Louisiana State	Inc. 107,538	Inc. 15,847	Inc. 52,773	Inc. 176,157
Mech. & Traders'	Inc. 289,858	Inc. 169,776	Dc. 114,272	Inc. 345,362
New Orleans	Inc. 161,810	Inc. 263,084	Dc. 50,356	Inc. 170,000	Inc. 544,538
	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
Net	Inc. 403,473	Inc. 1,193,408	Inc. 519,850	Inc. 170,000	Inc. 2,586,731

* \$302,510 of Branch Checks. † Stocks of the bank purchased from the State. ‡ City bonds.
 | City bonds. § City bonds. ** \$32,000 on local bank stocks, and 1,721,525 on personal securities.

DIVIDENDS OF BANKS IN THE CITY OF NEW YORK.

The following table shows the semi-annual dividends declared by the several banks in the city of New York for the years 1852 and 1853, and the months in which the dividends are payable:—

	Dividends.		Dividend Months.
	1852.	1853.	
American Exchange Bank	5	5	May, November.
Atlantic Bank	Not fixed.
Bank of America	4	4	January, July.
Bank of Commerce	4	4	" "
Bank of Commonwealth	New.
Bank of New York	5	5	January, July.
Bank of North America	3½	3½	" "
Bank of the State of New York	4	4	May, November.
Bank of the Republic	3½	4	February, Aug.
Bank of the Union	New.
Bowery Bank	4	4	May, November.
Broadway Bank	4	4	" "
Butchers and Drovers' Bank	5	5	January, July.
Central Bank	new.	.	" "
Chatham Bank	4	4	May, November.
Chemical Bank	6	6	January, July.
Citizens' Bank	4	4	Feb., August.
City Bank	5	5	May, November.
Continental Bank	new.	.	January, July.
Corn Exchange Bank	new.	.	Feb., August.
East River Bank	new.	3½	January, July.
Empire City Bank	3½	" "
Fulton Bank	5	5	May, November.
Greenwich Bank	5	5	" "
Grocers' Bank	new.	3½	January, July.
Hanover Bank	3½	4	" "
Irving Bank	3½	3½	" "
Island City Bank	New.
Knickerbocker Bank	new.	4	January, July.
Leather Manufacturers' Bank	5	5	Feb., August.
Manhattan Bank	4	4	" "
Marine Bank	new.	" "
Market Bank	4	January, July.
Mechanics' Bank	5	5	May, November.
Mechanics' Banking Association	4	4	" "
Mechanics and Traders' Bank	6	6	" "
Mercantile Bank	5	5	January, July.
Merchants' Bank	5	5	June, Decemb'r.
Merchants' Exchange Bank	4	4	January, July.
Metropolitan Bank	4	4	" "
National Bank	5	5	April, October.
Nassau Bank	new.	January, July.
North River Bank	5	5	" "
New York Dry Dock Bank	4	4	" "
New York Exchange Bank	5	4	" "
Ocean Bank	4	4	" "
Oriental Bank	New.
Pacific Bank	4	4	January, July.
People's Bank	3½	3½	" "
Phoenix Bank	4½	4½	" "
Seventh Ward Bank	4½	4½	" "
Shoe and Leather Bank	4	April, October.
St. Nicholas Bank	new.	Feb., August.
Suffolk Bank	new.	January, July.
Tradesmen's Bank	7½	7½	" "
Union Bank	5	5	May, November.

The following dividends were declared and payable in January, 1854 :—

Bank of America	4	Mercantile Bank	5
Bank of Commerce	4	Merchants' Exchange Bank	4
Bank of New York	4	Metropolitan Bank	4
Bank of North America	3½	Nassau Bank	4
Butchers and Drovers' Bank	5	North River Bank	5
Central Bank	3½	N. Y. Dry Dock Bank	4
Chemical Bank	6	New York Exchange Bank	4
Continental Bank	4	Ocean Bank	3½
East River Bank	4	Pacific Bank	4
Empire City Bank	3½	People's Bank	3½
Grocers' Bank	3½	Phenix Bank (final)	15
Hanover Bank	Seventh Ward Bank	4½
Irving Bank	3½	Suffolk Bank
Knickerbocker Bank	3½	Tradesmen's Bank (per sh. of \$40) ..	3
Market Bank	4		

NEW YORK STOCK MARKET IN 1853.

The following table shows the price of certain stocks in the New York market on the first of each month during the year 1853. It is published in the *Merchants' Magazine* for present and future reference :—

Stocks.	Jan. 1.	Feb. 1.	Mar. 1.	Apr. 1.	May 1.	June 1.
United States six per cents, 1868	119½	120½	120½	120½	119½	120
Ohio six per cents, 1860	109½	110	108½	108½	108	109
Pennsylvania State fives, coupon	99½	105½	104½	104	104	100
Kentucky six per cents, 1871	112½	111	109½	108	109	110½
Indiana five per cents	102	101½	99	97½	98	98
Erie Railroad sevens, 1868	115½	115½	117	118½	116	117½
“ “ “ 1859	107½	111	107½	106	108½	109
Erie Income Bonds, 1855	101½	98½	97½	97½	99½	99½
Erie Convertible sevens, 1871	101½	98½	97½	94½	88½	99½
Hudson River sevens	109½	106½	105½	106½	107½	108½
Hudson River Second Mortgage	100½	100	98½	99	101	103
Southern Michigan Railroad Bonds	100	101½	101½	101½	102	103½
Ocean Bank, New York	106½	103½	103½	102½	102½	105
Mechanics' Bank, New York	130½	131½	135	131	133	137
Bank of Commerce, New York	112½	108½	108½	107½	108	109½
Bank of America, New York	120	110½	108½	110½	110½	114½
Bank of State of New York	108	109½	108½	108	109	107½
Delaware and Hudson Canal Co.	180	126	125	120	125½	125½
Canton Company, Baltimore	116	119	123½	29½	32	31
Farmers' Loan and Trust Co.	107	105½	104½	104	108	109
Morris Canal Co.	21½	21½	21½	21½	23	22½
Erie Railroad shares	93	90½	87½	85	90	88½
Hudson River Railroad shares	75½	70	66½	63½	72½	73½
Reading Railroad shares	93	85	91	89	91	88½
New York and N. Haven Railroad shares ..	115½	116	111	110½	112	107½
Norwich and Worcester Railroad shares ..	53	51	51½	53½	57½	57½
Harlem Railroad shares	73	70	67½	66½	65½	65
Michigan Central Railroad shares	105	106½	107½	107½	114½	117
Michigan Southern Railroad shares	125½	125	125	125	131	135
New York Central Railroad shares
“ “ “ bonds
Panama Railroad shares	140	134½	132½	125	120	120½
Long Island Railroad shares	31½	38½	37½	39	39½	37½
Stonington Railroad shares	57½	57½	56½	57½	56½	56½
Cumberland Coal Co.	66½	66	56	54	50½	51
Parker Vein Coal Co.	67	75½	40	36½	34	32½
Nicaragua Transit Co.	36	36½	34½	31½	33½	32
Sixth Avenue Railroad	120	119	120	117½	116½

Stocks.	July 1.	Aug. 1.	Sep. 1.	Oct. 1.	Nov. 1.	Dec. 31.
United States six per cents, 1868.....	121½	121½	122½	122½	123	120½
Ohio six per cents, 1860.....	107½	107½	107½	107½	105	105½
Pennsylvania State fives, coupon.....	101	101	100	100	99	92½
Kentucky six per cents, 1871.....	111½	107½	106	106½	102	106½
Indiana five per cents.....	98½	98½	98	99	97	93
Erie Railroad sevens, 1868.....	114	117	115½	115½	110	114
" " " 1859.....	108½	107	103½	103½	99	106½
Erie Income Bonds, 1855.....	100	96	95	95½	93	97
Erie Convertible Sevens, 1871.....	98½	98	92	91½	87	92½
Hudson River sevens.....	108	105½	105	105	102	103½
Hudson River Second Mortgage.....	100½	101½	100	100	95½	98
Southern Michigan Railroad Bonds.....	105½	104½	104	102½	99	98
Ocean Bank, New York.....	102½	102	100	99½	96	95
Mechanics' Bank, New York.....	141	140	141	139½	131	132
Bank of Commerce, New York.....	107½	109	107	106½	101½	104½
Bank of America, New York.....	113	113½	113	114½	114	116½
Bank of State of New York.....	110½	109	109½	108½	104	106
Delaware and Hudson Canal Co.....	120½	120	118	118½	104½	104½
Canton Company, Baltimore.....	29½	29	28½	28½	24½	26½
Farmer's Loan and Trust Co.....	110½	109	108	106	101	102
Morris Canal Co.....	20½	19½	18½	16½	14	15½
Erie Railroad shares.....	80	77½	74½	77½	73½	...
Hudson River Railroad shares.....	72½	71½	68½	70½	65	67½
Reading Railroad shares.....	92½	87½	84	82½	72	79½
New York and N. Haven Railroad shares.....	107½	103½	105½	104	96	101
Norwich and Worcester Railroad shares ..	56½	53½	53½	53½	51½	60
Harlem Railroad shares.....	65	61½	56	58	51½	55½
Michigan Central Railroad shares.....	116½	110	110½	111½	106½	109
Michigan Southern Railroad shares.....	144	125	125	121	116	129
New York Central Railroad shares.....	122	116½	115	114½	110	113½
" " " bonds.....	94	92½	92½
Panama Railroad shares.....	122½	115	108	95	87	96
Long Island Railroad shares.....	35½	35½	32	31	27½	30½
Stonington Railroad shares.....	56½	58½	62	63	61	65½
Cumberland Coal Co.....	48½	38½	42	37½	34½	35½
Parker Vein Coal Co.....	32½	20½	19	18½	10½	7½
Nicaragua Transit Co.....	29½	26½	23½	24½	22	27½
Sixth Avenue Railroad Co.....	118	116	109½	105	99	98

CONDITION OF BANKS IN UNITED STATES.

The *Economist* has compiled, from bank reports made nearest January, 1854, the subjoined items:—

BANKS OF THE UNION—REPORTS NEAREST TO JANUARY, 1854.

	Loans.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Circulation Jan., 1853.
Vermont, Sept.....	\$6,635,594	\$1,188,548	\$4,794,819	\$767,321	\$3,779,131
New Hampshire, Sept.....	6,396,900	178,502	2,950,665	899,789	2,625,707
Massachusetts, Oct....	87,189,127	3,731,764	30,402,502	18,434,252	21,172,360
Rhode Island, Sept....	22,844,909	359,699	4,895,599	2,134,281	3,322,318
New York, Sept.....	123,740,810	12,909,359	32,427,022	77,167,075	33,416,130
N. Jersey, Jan. 1854....	10,371,000	1,032,000	4,282,008	3,821,000	3,893,825
Ohio, Nov.....	17,584,053	2,356,451	10,717,330	6,787,046	11,273,210
Indiana, Nov. 1.....	5,037,394	1,377,804	3,949,280	650,699	3,720,220
Michigan, Jan. 1.....	1,235,053	282,334	899,927	1,059,807	861,140
Wisconsin.....	1,065,376	182,282	578,721	485,121
Kentucky.....	13,299,001	8,889,101
Virginia, Oct.....	22,044,000	3,556,000	12,760,000	5,908,000	12,020,373
Maryland, Jan. 1.....	14,969,213	2,818,708	2,956,532	6,962,529	3,328,068
Missouri, Jan. 1.....	3,912,462	937,835	2,487,530	1,312,510	2,427,720
New Orleans, Jan. 1..	19,788,516	7,462,245	6,916,054	11,750,064	6,764,196
Bank of Mobile, Nov..	2,191,902	657,370	1,739,646	516,012

\$135,835,479

\$117,493,489

SAVINGS BANKS IN MASSACHUSETTS.

We have received from the State Department an "Abstract exhibiting the condition of the Institutions for Savings, in Massachusetts, on the last Saturday in October, 1853," as prepared from official returns by Ephraim M. Wright, Secretary of the Commonwealth. We give the aggregate of sixty Savings Banks, compared with the fifty-three of the previous year, (1852,) as follows:—

	1853.	1852.
Number of depositors.....	117,404	97,353
Amount of deposits.....	\$23,370,102 83	\$18,401,307 86
Public funds.....	861,646 54	1,176,917 29
Loans on public funds.....	1,000 00	7,650 00
Bank stock.....	5,398,253 40	3,555,296 98
Loans on bank stock.....	712,075 00	550,704 00
Deposits in banks, bearing interest.....	440,982 59	288,748 23
Railroad stock.....	130,621 25	145,739 25
Loans on railroad stock.....	239,377 10	261,468 30
Invested in real estate.....	106,896 11	102,401 65
Loans in mortgage of real estate.....	7,262,306 48	5,616,479 18
Loans to county or town.....	3,152,694 29	2,012,249 95
Loans on personal security.....	6,392,800 07	5,023,417 62
Cash on hand.....	311,532 10	388,058 65
Rate dividend for 1853.....a fraction over	4 77-100	4 69 100
Amount of dividend.....	848,107 73	1,033,236 95
Average annual per cent of dividends, of last five years.....a fraction over	6 71-100	6 49-100
Annual expenses of the institutions.....	59,071 27	49,380 02

DECIMAL COINAGE IN GREAT BRITAIN.

Dr. R. SHELTON MACKENZIE, the London correspondent of the *Sunday Times*, writes thus of the progress of the decimal coinage movement in England:—

The movement in favor of a decimal coinage is getting strength as it advances. In a short time, probably within the present year, the tangled system now in vogue will be changed. All the present gold and silver coinage can be used. At present the pound sterling, (represented by the gold piece called a sovereign,) consists of 240 pence, or 480 cents. The value, under the new system, would be 250 pence, or 500 halfpence, or cents, and 1,000 farthings, which coin, as then representing the thousandth part of the pound, (to be taken as the unit,) will be called a *mill*. Thus the sovereign will consist of 1,000 mills; the half-sovereign of 500; the crown of 250; the half-crown of 125; the florin, (or two shilling piece, equal to your half dollar,) of 100 mills; the shilling of 50; and the sixpence of 25. The half-crown, fourpenny, and threepenny silver pieces will have to be withdrawn, and 20 and 10 mill pieces, (equivalent to your dimes and semi-dimes,) to replace them. The whole change can thus be made by taking the sovereign as the unit. In reply to a charge that the old coinage must be withdrawn, the parliament committee say: "That is quite a mistake. If the mills are marked on all new silver coinage as issued, as the committee recommends, and pass for exactly the amount as that now in circulation, none of the present silver coinage need be withdrawn until worn out—its remaining in circulation would at once show the least intelligent person that there was no difference in value between the old and the new. The copper coinage would have to be changed, and one, two, and five mill pieces substituted. It does not matter whether the smallest coin be called a farthing or a mill. What's in a name?"

The new mill or farthing is four per cent less than our present farthing, but with reference to the gold and silver coinage this difference is compensated by getting 25 mill pieces for a sixpence in place of 24 farthings, and 50 for a shilling in place of 48 farthings, which is a very trifling disturbance, and will be far outweighed by the advantages arising from the adoption of a pure decimal currency. After all, so great is John Bull's antipathy to the suspicion of imitating Uncle Sam, there will be no computation, in this country, by dollars and cents, which readily could be by calling our florin a half-dollar, and estimating it at 50 cents like yours.

PROPERTY AND TAXES OF NEW ORLEANS IN 1853.

Mr. Francis Turner, the assessor of the first district of the Parish of Orleans, has furnished the subjoined abstract of the assessment of the Parish for 1853, and of the taxes imposed for the same year:—

AN ABSTRACT OF THE ASSESSMENT OF THE PARISH OF ORLEANS, AFTER OBJECTIONS AND CORRECTIONS HAVE BEEN MADE, FOR 1853.

Rep. Districts.	Real Estate.	Negroes.	Capital.	Licenses.
First.....	5,653,260	680,000	313,155	6,475
Second.....	7,251,415	676,150	536,360	9,730
Third.....	20,157,175	537,750	6,882,030	76,235
Fourth.....	9,150,730	376,800	2,630,800	24,115
Fifth.....	6,886,340	551,900	851,100	16,960
Sixth.....	4,356,760	549,900	492,600	7,950
Seventh.....	2,538,615	255,800	317,800	6,990
Eighth.....	1,669,175	117,400	406,900	3,670
Ninth.....	1,880,790	234,100	266,050	3,710
Tenth.....	6,806,000	362,500	198,700	7,250
Real Estate.....	66,350,260	4,342,300	12,895,495	163,115
Negroes.....	4,342,300			
Capital.....	12,895,495			

Total..... \$83,588,055

State tax, 16½ per \$100	\$139,313 42
Mill tax, for support of public schools.....	83,578 05
State licenses	163,115 00
Poll tax for support of public schools.....	9,709 00

Total..... \$395,725 47

CITY TAXES, ETC.

Jackson Railroad Company, 50c. per \$100.....	\$331,751 30
Opelousas " " 33½ "	221,167 53
Consolidated debt, 105c. per \$100.....	696,677 73
Current expenses, 75c. per \$100	530,194 20

Total..... \$1,779,790 76

In comparing the above statement with the returns of last year, it will be observed that the increase of taxable property in the Parish of Orleans is \$6,025,925, viz:—

Real Estate... \$3,440,785 | Slaves..... \$383,100 | Capital..... \$2,202,040

This increase is only nine districts, the tenth, Lafayette, is unknown.

INCREASE OF TAXABLE PROPERTY OF TEXAS.

The taxable property throughout the State of Texas has increased in value for the last eight years, but more especially for the past three years. The increase in this period has been at a rate seldom known, being almost 100 per cent, affording unmistakeable evidence of the prosperity and growth of the country. The following table presents the aggregate property for each of the last eight consecutive years, commencing with 1846 and terminating with 1853, with the increase per cent for each year:—

	Aggregate taxable property.	Increase of taxable property.	Increase per cent.
1846	\$34,391,175
1847	37,563,505	\$3,171,330	8½
1848	43,812,537	6,250,032	16½
1849	46,241,589	2,429,052	5½
1850	51,814,615	5,573,026	12 2-5
1851	69,739,581	17,924,966	33½
1852	80,764,094	11,014,513	16½
1853	99,155,114	18,401,020	23

MONTREAL STOCK MARKET IN 1853.

Under our Head of "Commercial Statistics" we have given some important particulars of the trade and Commerce of the port of Montreal, up to January 5th, 1854. Below we publish a statement of the value of stocks, and the last dividends made by the several corporations, as follows:—

Stocks.	Dec.	Paid up. £ s.	Div. 6 mos.
Bank of Montreal, 1852.....	No report	50 0	..
" " 1853.....	24½ prem.	3½*
Bank of British North America, 1852.....	No report	50 stg.	..
" " 1853.....	16½ prem.	3*
Commercial Bank, 1852.....	25 cy.	..
" " 1853.....	15½ prem.	3½*
City Bank, 1852.....	18 15	..
" " 1853.....	10½ prem.	3*
Bank of Upper Canada, 1852.....	12 10	..
" " 1853.....	None.	3½*
Banque du Peuple, 1852.....	12 10	..
" " 1853.....	1 prem.	3*
Montreal Mining Consols, 1852.....	2 10	..
" " 1853.....	60s.	5s†
Champlain and St. Lawrence Railroad, 1852.....	None
" " 1853.....	25 dis.	50 0	..
St. Lawrence and Atlantic Railroad, 1852.....
" " 1853.....	28 dis.	3*
Montreal and Lachine Railroad, 1852.....	50 0	..
" " 1853.....	40 dis.	1*
Montreal Telegraph Company, 1852.....	40 dis.	10 0	..
" " 1853.....	25 prem.	4*
Montreal Gas Company Stock, 1852.....	12 10	..
" " 1853.....	None.	2*
Champlain and St. Lawrence Railroad Bonds, 1852...	100 0	3½*

Those marked thus (*), per cent; and those thus (†), per share.

THE FREE BANKS IN WISCONSIN.

The report of the Controller of the State of Wisconsin shows that there are ten banks, organized under the general banking law of that State, and in operation. The condition of the whole, together, shows as follows:—

RESOURCES.

Loans and discounts, except to directors and brokers.....	\$1,065,376 72	Cash items.....	\$20,136 80
Due from directors.....	85,066 83	Real estate.....	8,461 52
Due from brokers.....	23,156 77	Loss and expense account.	17,190 09
Over drafts.....	8,466 15	Bills of solvent banks on hand.....	154,154 25
Stocks.....	578,721 11	Bills of suspended banks.	840 00
Promissory notes, not loans and discounts.....	27,000 00	Due from banks.....	325,946 04
Specie.....	182,482 81	Total.....	\$2,450,499 09

LIABILITIES.

Capital.....	\$600,000 00	Due to depositors on demand.....	654,048 10
Registered notes in circulation.....	485,121 00	Due to all others.....	710,954 99
Due to State Treasurer...	376 00	Total.....	\$2,450,499 08

In addition to the above, the Controller informs the Legislature that the following banks have gone into operation, or will do so shortly: Oshkosh City Bank, capital

\$50,000, and has taken out a circulation of \$25,000; City Bank of Racine, capital \$50,000; Racine County Bank, capital \$100,000; Exchange Bank of Wm. J. Bell & Co., Milwaukee, capital \$50,000; Jefferson County Bank, increased capital, \$50,000; Bank of Fon du Lac, capital \$25,000.

REVENUE OF GREAT BRITAIN IN 1853-54.

The following abstracts of the net produce of the revenue of Great Britain in years ended January 5, 1853 and 1854, showing the increase and decrease, is derived from an official document:—

	Jan. 5, 1853.	Jan. 5, 1854.	Year ended Jan. 5, 1854. Increase.	Decrease.
Customs.....	£18,695,882	£18,978,223	£282,841
Excise.....	13,856,981	13,629,103	272,122
Stamps.....	6,287,261	6,500,988	213,727
Taxes.....	3,877,843	3,153,863	223,975
Property Tax.....	5,609,687	5,560,196	50,559
Post Office.....	1,102,000	1,104,000	18,000
Crown Lands.....	200,000	402,883	142,888
Miscellaneous.....	293,729	176,735	17,854
Total ordinary revenue	48,802,833	49,505,641	962,187	259,329
Imprest and other money	634,063	879,089	245,026
Repayment of advances,	1,031,297	1,399,388	368,091
Total income.....	50,468,193	51,784,118	1,575,254	259,329

The decrease of income in 1854 amounted to £259,329, and increase to £1,575,254; showing a balance in favor of the year ending Jan. 5, 1854, of £1,324,925.

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

TOBACCO TRADE AND INSPECTIONS AT NEW YORK.

Below is a correct statement of the inspections of leaf tobacco at this port from 1834—the time of the establishment of the inspection warehouse in this city—to the close of 1853, inclusive, and the stocks at the warehouse at the beginning of each month for twelve years:—

	Ky. hhds.	Va. & N. C. hhds.	Ohio. hhds.	Md. hhds.	Total hhds.
1834.....	3,657	1,754	413	85	5,909
1835.....	11,278	2,130	1,131	190	14,729
1836.....	10,495	87	2,609	16	13,107
1837.....	6,047	683	409	10	7,149
1838.....	7,599	360	71	..	8,030
1839.....	6,630	972	24	121	7,747
1840.....	10,263	3,502	63	2	13,830
1841.....	9,955	2,056	87	..	10,068
1842.....	8,236	1,123	61	..	9,420
1843.....	11,729	254	68	..	12,051
1844.....	6,052	544	2	36	6,634
1845.....	7,387	180	48	45	7,660
1846.....	5,701	1,785	102	81	7,669
1847.....	8,217	3,893	90	4	12,204
1848.....	9,983	975	55	9	11,022
1849.....	10,753	2,254	29	100	13,135
1850.....	12,207	1,437	28	122	13,794
1851.....	12,285	655	6	100	13,046
1852.....	20,107	361	1	3	20,472
1853.....	11,295	154	4	4	11,457

STOCKS.

	1842.	1843.	1844.	1845.	1846.	1847.
January	2,497	2,419	6,219	4,121	3,355	2,901
February	2,417	2,400	6,236	3,990	3,325	2,612
March	2,724	2,055	5,970	3,860	3,109	2,456
April	2,396	2,209	5,895	3,668	2,850	2,348
May	2,188	2,622	5,809	3,463	2,536	2,506
June	1,787	3,517	5,631	3,765	2,536	2,425
July	2,314	4,164	6,210	3,427	2,438	2,831
August	2,943	4,222	5,818	3,486	2,901	2,934
September	3,543	5,580	5,746	3,747	3,326	3,854
October	2,934	6,784	5,336	4,396	3,996	5,187
November	2,817	6,441	4,624	3,594	3,974	6,136
December	2,343	6,326	3,675	3,072	2,914	5,093

	1848.	1849.	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
January	5,200	5,531	6,064	6,374	5,096	9,640
February	5,260	5,295	6,240	5,944	4,472	8,905
March	5,278	4,903	6,114	5,820	3,977	7,927
April	5,244	4,414	5,753	5,576	3,191	6,272
May	5,737	4,347	5,277	6,029	2,940	5,139
June	5,504	4,158	5,112	6,742	3,629	5,618
July	6,238	5,570	5,059	6,598	6,436	6,696
August	7,523	7,042	5,769	7,845	9,636	7,127
September	8,252	7,986	8,435	8,448	12,689	7,648
October	8,530	8,197	7,846	9,082	13,173	8,063
November	7,763	7,146	6,517	8,070	12,488	8,593
December	6,266	6,307	6,111	6,489	11,668	8,335
1854—January 1.....	hhda.					7,557

TOBACCO AND FLOUR TRADE OF BALTIMORE.

EXPORTS OF TOBACCO FROM THE PORT OF BALTIMORE FOR THE LAST THIRTEEN YEARS.

Years.	Bremen.	Rotterdam.	Amsterdam.	France.	All other places.	Total.
1853.....	18,947	10,395	9,980	5,380	5,986	50,688
1852.....	22,860	11,473	5,067	7,679	7,734	54,814
1851.....	12,654	9,694	4,154	2,327	5,292	34,124
1850.....	15,864	7,814	5,973	8,177	6,540	44,368
1849.....	18,821	13,783	8,725	9,562	1,033	51,924
1848.....	12,787	7,910	3,103	5,761	131	38,890
1847.....	22,967	7,819	11,888	7,839	1,895	53,482
1846.....	24,404	9,498	6,181	8,165	3,037	49,491
1845.....	26,832	18,171	10,944	7,183	2,880	66,010
1844.....	17,139	11,864	7,095	7,212	1,594	44,904
1843.....	16,990	6,525	7,325	7,932	3,822	42,594
1842.....	17,719	10,874	8,109	4,682	2,379	43,763
1841.....	16,373	7,918	5,169	3,814	2,519	38,001

TOBACCO INSPECTIONS AT BALTIMORE FOR THE LAST THIRTEEN YEARS.

Years.	Maryland.	Ohio.	Va. & other kinds.	Total.
1853.....	29,248	17,947	1,472	48,667
1852.....	29,569	17,720	1,043	48,332
1851.....	25,013	16,798	931	42,742
1850.....	27,085	13,965	783	41,833
1849.....	30,688	13,664	1,243	45,601
1848.....	23,491	9,702	703	33,906
1847.....	34,580	15,219	772	50,571
1846.....	41,416	29,626	754	71,896
1845.....	39,538	26,696	1,755	67,989
1844.....	32,249	15,464	1,244	48,957
1843.....	29,354	13,465	4,877	47,696
1842.....	33,759	11,278	1,439	46,476
1841.....	29,980	7,692	1,479	39,151

INSPECTIONS OF WHEAT AND RYE FLOUR AND CORN MEAL FOR THIRTEEN YEARS.

Years.	Flour. bbls.	hhds.	Corn Meal. bbls.	hf. bbls.	Rye Flour. bbls.	hf. bbls.
1841.....	628,974	459	10,736	34	3,631	22
1842.....	558,282	715	7,772	437	5,436	34
1843.....	560,431	535	13,359	821	8,401	45
1844.....	499,501	245	25,054	1,525	9,904	..
1845.....	576,745	631	23,949	1,450	6,518	24
1846.....	850,116	1,076	40,942	1,744	5,402	..
1847.....	959,456	934	105,842	1,298	6,666	49
1848.....	786,441	333	60,225	1,323	7,520	105
1849.....	764,519	428	51,772	2,061	8,007	9
1850.....	896,592	272	42,408	3,869	5,419	22
1851.....	912,498	620	28,917	2,256	7,654	53
1852.....	1,307,165	747	52,658	745	6,449	21
1853.....	1,181,303	...	38,478	5,394	..

COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES.

STATEMENT OF THE TOTAL VALUE OF IMPORTS INTO THE UNITED STATES FROM 1821 TO 1852
—SHOWING ALSO THE VALUE OF THE DOMESTIC AND FOREIGN EXPORTS, EXCLUSIVE OF
SPECIE, AND THE TONNAGE EMPLOYED DURING THE SAME PERIOD.

Years.	Total imports, including specie, &c.	Domestic prod- uce exported, exclusive of specie.	Foreign mdse. export'd, exclusive of specie.	Total exports, including specie, &c.	Tonnage.
1821.....	\$65,588,724	\$43,671,894	\$10,824,429	\$64,974,382	1,298,858
1822.....	83,241,541	49,874,079	11,504,270	72,160,281	1,324,699
1823.....	77,579,262	47,155,408	21,172,435	74,699,030	1,336,566
1824.....	80,549,007	50,649,500	18,322,605	75,986,657	1,389,163
1825.....	96,340,075	66,809,766	28,793,588	99,535,388	1,423,112
1826.....	84,974,477	52,499,855	20,440,934	77,595,322	1,534,191
1827.....	79,484,068	57,878,117	16,431,830	82,324,827	1,620,608
1828.....	88,509,824	49,976,682	14,044,608	72,284,686	1,741,392
1829.....	74,492,527	55,087,307	12,347,344	72,358,671	1,260,798
1830.....	70,876,920	58,524,878	13,145,857	73,849,508	1,191,776
1831.....	103,191,124	59,218,583	13,077,069	41,310,583	1,267,847
1832.....	101,029,266	61,726,529	19,794,074	87,176,943	1,439,450
1833.....	108,118,311	69,950,856	15,577,876	90,140,433	1,606,151
1834.....	126,521,332	80,823,662	21,636,553	104,336,973	1,758,907
1835.....	149,895,742	100,459,481	14,756,321	121,693,577	1,824,940
1836.....	189,980,035	106,570,942	17,767,762	128,663,040	1,882,103
1837.....	140,989,217	94,280,895	17,162,232	117,419,376	1,896,686
1838.....	113,717,404	95,560,580	9,417,690	108,486,616	1,994,640
1839.....	162,092,132	101,625,533	10,626,140	121,028,416	2,096,380
1840.....	107,141,519	111,660,561	12,008,371	132,085,946	2,180,764
1841.....	127,946,177	103,636,236	8,181,235	121,851,803	2,130,744
1842.....	100,162,087	91,799,242	8,078,753	104,691,534	2,092,391
1843 (9 m's, to June 30)	64,753,799	77,686,354	5,139,335	84,346,480	2,158,603
1844.....	108,435,035	99,631,774	6,214,058	111,206,046	2,280,093
1845.....	117,254,564	98,455,330	7,584,781	114,646,608	2,417,002
1846.....	121,691,797	101,718,042	7,565,206	113,488,516	2,562,085
1847.....	146,545,638	150,574,844	6,166,754	158,648,622	2,839,046
1848.....	154,998,928	140,203,709	7,986,802	154,032,131	3,154,043
1849.....	147,857,439	131,710,081	8,641,691	145,755,820	3,331,015
1850.....	178,138,318	134,900,233	9,475,493	151,898,720	3,535,454
1851.....	216,224,932	178,620,138	10,295,121	219,388,011	3,772,439
1852.....	212,613,282	154,930,447	12,037,043	209,641,625	4,133,441

NOTE.—In the tables laid before Congress at the last session, the imports, including specie, were stated at \$223,419,005; but it was afterward ascertained that this included \$7,194,073 of gold from California via New Grenada, which does not properly belong to foreign imports, and it is, therefore, now deducted in the preceding statement, leaving the foreign imports, including specie, \$216,224,932 for that year.

THE TRADE AND COMMERCE OF THE GREAT LAKES.

The Commerce of these great inland seas, says the *Toronto Leader*, is acquiring a magnitude and importance which attest the rapidity with which the territory which they drain has been rendered productive. Half a century ago, Lakes Ontario, Erie, Huron, Michigan, St. Clair, and Superior, were entirely without Commerce. Almost the only craft to be seen upon them was the Indian canoe. In 1850 their tonnage had risen to 215,000, and the value of the whole of the traffic to \$362,000,000. The first craft ever launched on Lake Erie was built by the French, for the expedition of the celebrated La Salle, so far back as 1679; but more than a century elapsed before any Americal vessel was launched upon the Lakes; an event which occurred in 1797. The first steamer launched in America was built in Lower Canada, to run between Montreal and Quebec. This was about the year 1812. The legislature of the province having in the session of 1811 granted a monopoly of the route to Mr. Moulson. Mr. Papineau is even yet reminded that he voted for the monopoly; but we suspect it was a pardonable act in those days. The first steamer on Lake Ontario was launched in 1816, two years before a like event took place on Lake Erie. The first navigable outlet from the lake—the Erie Canal—was completed in 1825. Next came the Well-land Canal.

The measurements of the Lakes are as follows:—

Lakes	Greatest length.	Greatest breadth.	Mean depth.	Elevation.	Area. squ. miles.
Superior	335	160	980	627	32,000
Michigan	320	108	900	578	22,000
Huron	260	160	900	574	20,400
Erie	240	80	84	565	9,000
Ontario.....	180	35	500	262	6,800
Total.....	1,585	90,000

A survey of the Lakes is now in progress by the American government; but it is not likely that the result will show much variation from the above measurement, the result of previous surveys. The area drained by these Lakes is estimated, according to Mr. Andrews' report on the trade and Commerce of the British American Colonies, at 513,515.

A noticable feature in the shipping of the Lakes, is the gradual substitution of steam for sailing vessels. One-half of the tonnage of the Lakes will soon consist of steamers. In 1861 the proportion was 74,000 tons steam, against 138,000 tons of sail. In the new vessels lately built the tendency is observable of steamers to usurp the place of sailing on the lakes.

The tonnage of the Lakes, in 1820, amounted to only 5,500 tons; in the next ten years it rose to 20,000; in 1840 to 75,000; and in 1850 to 215,787 tons. The ratio of increase has thus been much greater every succeeding decade. But the present hardly gives an idea of the vast Commerce of which these Lakes are destined to become the scene in future. It is estimated that the American States which border on the Lakes are of themselves capable of sustaining a population of 22,000,000. Add to this the Commerce that will grow up from the Canadian shores of those seas, and one may form conception of the future Commerce of the Lakes.

When it is considered that these lakes for so great a distance form the boundary between Canada and the United States, how important it becomes that this Commerce should be as free as possible consistently with the raising of a revenue from customs for the support of government.

CANADIAN COMMERCE.

TRADE AND COMMERCE OF THE PORT OF MONTREAL.

A correspondent has furnished us with interesting statistics of the trade of the port of Montreal, for the last and previous years, which we here subjoin:—

On reference to the annual return of imports at the port of Montreal, in 1849, the first year of the present tariff, we find that the revenue for duties for that year amounted to..... £191,856

The year ending Jan. 5, 1854, exhibits a net revenue for duties of.... 447,089

Showing an increase compared with that year in favor of 1853 of... £255,228

Taking the three past years, we find them to stand as follows:—

		January 5, 1852.	
Goods paying specific duty.....		£271,505	6 3
“ 30 per cent.....		22,279	7 6
“ 20 “.....		13,414	8 8
“ 12½ “.....		1,638,631	13 3
“ 2½ “.....		211,591	16 11
Total.....		2,157,422	12 7
Free goods.....		137,288	3 8
Total value of goods imported during the year.....		£2,294,710	16 3
Net amount received for duty.....		£314,190	0 0
		January 5, 1853.	
Goods paying specific duty.....		£345,105	17 0
“ 30 per cent.....		27,137	7 3
“ 20 “.....		4,621	12 8
“ 12½ “.....		1,516,041	6 5
“ 2½ “.....		800,629	2 10
Total.....		£2,193,540	6 1
Free Goods.....		117,931	12 2
Total value of goods imported during the year.....		£2,311,471	18 3
Net amount received for duty.....		£331,773	15 8
		January 5, 1854.	
Goods paying specific duty.....		£456,446	12 0
“ 30 per cent.....		38,837	1 11
“ 20 “.....		31,197	15 8
“ 12½ “.....		2,293,142	1 5
“ 2½ “.....		655,579	15 4
Total.....		£3,475,203	6 4
Free Goods.....		128,493	8 5
Total importation during the year.....		£3,603,696	14 9
Net amount received for duty.....		£447,089	12 0
Thus showing the importation at this port for the year 1851 to have been.....		2,294,710	0 0
Ditto for 1852.....		2,311,471	0 0
Ditto for 1853.....		3,603,696	0 0
Showing an increase over 1851 in favor of the past year of... ..		£1,308,916	0 0
And of the preceding year of.....		£1,292,225	0 0

On referring to the table of imports, the articles which make up the large increase it will be found dry goods and hardware form a large item of the above figures.

The following table, made up from the books of the Trinity House, will show the increase of shipping at our port from sea during the past ten years:—

STATEMENT OF ARRIVALS AT THE PORT OF MONTREAL, FROM SEA, FOR THE FOLLOWING YEARS :

Year.	No.	Tonnage.	Year.	No.	Tonnage.	Year.	No.	Tonnage.
1842....	137	41,309	1846.....	221	55,868	1850....	222	46,867
1843....	106	36,631	1847.....	221	63,308	1851....	275	58,836
1844....	182	48,186	1848.....	164	42,157	1852....	185	45,154
1845....	202	51,295	1849.....	150	37,703	1853....	253	60,507

STATEMENT SHOWING THE QUANTITY AND VALUE OF THE PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF IMPORT
AT THE PORT OF MONTREAL, FOR THE YEARS ENDING JANUARY 5, 1853 AND 1854.

ARTICLES PAYING SPECIFIC AND AD VALOREM DUTIES.

Articles.	1853.		1854.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
Coffee, green.....cwt.	4,045	£9,654	3,660	£9,160
" other.....	23	51	18	47
Sugar, refined.....	3,605	5,644	12,193	21,457
" other.....	85,704	103,460	119,978	181,322
Molasses.....	64,880	19,036	876,522	30,743
Tea.....lbs.	1,942,728	111,796	2,240,299	188,441
Tobacco, unmanufactured.....	264,665	3,457	203,712	3,462
" manufactured.....	1,202,257	29,492	1,081,816	32,144
Cigars.....	82,280	5,867	24,943	6,524
Snuff.....	1,851	90	1,193	54
Spirits—Brandy.....galla.	105,382	17,270	104,226	29,137
Gin.....	56,186	4,894	118,166	11,486
Rum.....	26,876	2,205	37,426	3,140
Whisky.....	35,519	3,220	44,713	4,823
Cordials.....	744	258	5,092	972
Wine under £15 per pipe.....	135,445	12,941	244,283	33,368
" above.....	53,480	10,477		
" in cases.....	4,816	2,474		
Salt.....bbls.	138,788	2,603	8,197	166

GOODS PAYING 30 PER CENT.

Fruit, green.....	2,980	2,818
" dried.....	13,854	19,284
Spices.....	7,746	13,879
Confectionary.....	410	1,261
Macaroni.....	157	197
Vinegar.....	1,785	1,351

GOODS PAYING 20 PER CENT.

Grain—Meal.....	7
Flour.....	2,966	1,794
Pork, not Mess.....	7

GOODS PAYING 12½ PER CENT.

Ale and beer.....	3,848	6,144
Cider.....	73	21
Cocoa and chocolate.....	183	70
Fish, salted and pickled.....	2,676	2,187
" fresh.....	1,608	2,893
Fur.....	21,161	38,116
Glass.....	8,937	16,763
Leather, tanned.....	20,969	33,214
Oil, except palm or cocoa-nut.....	24,714	37,553
Paper.....	6,446	21,443
Pork, mess.....bbls.	7,427	10,883
Seeds.....	2,053	991
Rice.....	4,707	13,072
Candles.....	3,023	11,980
Cotton.....	362,162	618,550
Leather, boots and shoes.....	2,659	5,083
" other.....	3,713	9,513
India rubber.....	11,572	14,996
Iron and hardware.....	180,301	258,574
Machinery.....	26,196	16,633
Linen.....	39,216	58,599
Silk.....	79,884	137,293
Wood.....	3,308	4,799
Wool.....	378,163	608,186
Articles not enumerated.....	316,973	343,557

GOODS PAYING 2½ PER CENT.

	1853.		1854.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
Broom, corn.....	840	1,035
Burr stones.....	278	649
Chain cables.....	138	6,426
Dye stuffs.....	2,329	2,115
Flax, hemp, and tow.....	11,520	2,643
Hides.....	8,350	6,577
Iron—Bar, rod, and sheet.....	53,598	248,889
Boiler-plate and R. R. B.....	141,058	13,477
Pig, scrap and old.....	15,004	27,056
Hoop.....	4,405	22,420
Junk and oakum.....	510	658
Lard.....	2,350	4,351
Lead.....	1,150	1,221
Oil, except palm and cocoa-not.....	1,356	3,791
Pitch and tar.....	80	901
Rope.....
Resin.....	694	1,665
Steel.....	10,412	22,082
Tallow.....	24,322	30,733

FREE GOODS.

Tin, zinc.....	7,080
Railroad bar.....	67,237
Cotton yarn and warp.....	8,912	15,163
Books.....	28,050	31,026
Cotton wool.....	2,382	1,999
Maize.....	3,496	7,213
Soda ash.....	3,512	9,872
Wheat.....	13,387	3,425
Fish oil.....	4,526
Seeds.....	410	4,780
Fur skins.....
Fish, fresh.....	1,094	7,889
" salt cod.....	3,646	6,234
Herrings.....	8,922	15,744
Mackerel.....	344	653
Other.....	146	11,414

POT AND PEARL ASHES SHIPPED AND IN STORE AT MONTREAL.

We give below a comparative statement of pot and pearl ashes shipped and in store up to the 1st of January in the years 1853 and 1854 :—

	1st January, 1853.			1st January, 1854.		
Shipped.....	23,408	9,002	32,410	18,487	7,409	25,896
In store.....	816	196	1,012	460	190	650
	24,224	9,198	33,422	18,947	7,599	26,546

STATISTICS OF THE WHALE FISHERY OF THE UNITED STATES IN 1853.

We transfer to the pages of the *Merchants' Magazine* the annual report of the Whale Fishery of the United States, for the year ending December 31st, 1853. This report is made up with great care by the *New Bedford Shipping List*, and may be relied upon for its general accuracy.

The trade continues to sustain itself with even less than the fluctuations incident to most branches of Commerce. The importation has been larger than that of any year since 1848. There have been 235 ships cruising in the northern seas during the year, against 283 in 1852, showing a diminution of 48 ships.

Prices have continued during the year to range high, and there is no reason to anticipate any large variation from established rates in the year to come. The project

of the Secretary of the Treasury, for the admission free of duty of foreign oils, may, if sanctioned by Congress, have its influence upon the market. In 1851, when whale oil, it will be remembered, ranged unusually high, the import of linseed oil reached over 30,000 bbls.

Only two ships are certainly known to have been lost during the last year, although there is reason to believe that another will be added to the list by coming advices from the northern seas. The large quantities of whalebone which have been shipped home in anticipation of return voyages, will reduce the amount to be received during the present year, as the catch this season will barely come up to the average.

IMPORTATIONS OF SPERM AND WHALE OIL AND WHALEBONE INTO THE UNITED STATES
IN 1853.

	Ships & Brigs & Barka. Sch'ers.		Sperm Oil, bbls.	Whale Oil, bbls.	Whalebone, lbs.
New Bedford	89	2	44,923	118,672	2,835,800
Fairhaven	13	.	8,083	14,172	188,700
Westport	10	1	4,610	92
Dartmouth	2	.	385	1,870	25,800
Mattapoisett	4	8	1,816	42	4,900
Sippican	2	200	40
Wareham	1	.	186	2,513	46,700
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	119	8	60,153	137,401	3,101,900
Sandwich	3	439	14
Falmouth	2	.	2,660	400	9,000
Holmes's Hole	1	320	1,720	1,000
Nantucket	15	4	19,232	7,598	43,700
Provincetown	1	21	1,761	603
Truro	1	70
Orleans	1	2	530	25
Boston	6	2	4,409	560
Salem	1	.	180	30
Lynn	2	.	1,656	2,120	28,000
Beverly	2	1	615	50
Fall River	2	.	360	280
Warren	5	.	3,173	1,548	9,300
Providence	2	.	1,963	4,527	54,000
New-London	18	3	1,107	45,990	1,881,200
Mystic	3	.	246	4,998	50,900
Stonington	6	3	561	14,142	110,300
Sag Harbor	5	.	1,316	6,338	74,800
Greenport	2	.	224	2,684	28,300
Cold Spring	1	2,359	51,200
New York	4	4	992	20,275	177,900
Baltimore	1	842
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	202	53	103,077	260,114	5,652,300

THE FOLLOWING TABLE SHOWS THE COMPARATIVE IMPORTS OF SPERM AND WHALE OIL AND BONE IN EACH YEAR FROM 1841 TO 1853.

	Sperm Oil, bbls.	Whale Oil, bbls.	Wh'bone, lbs.		Sperm Oil, bbls.	Whale Oil, bbls.	Wh'bone, lbs.
1852....	78,872	84,211	1,259,900	1846....	95,217	207,498	2,276,939
1851....	99,591	328,483	3,916,500	1845....	157,917	272,730	3,167,142
1850....	92,892	200,608	2,869,200	1844....	139,594	262,047	2,532,445
1849....	100,944	248,492	2,281,100	1843....	160,985	206,727	2,000,000
1848....	107,776	280,656	2,003,000	1842....	165,637	161,041	1,600,000
1847....	120,753	313,150	3,341,680	1841....	159,304	207,348	2,000,000

There were no exports of whale oil from New Bedford in 1852 and 1853. The exports in previous years have been as follows, in gallons :—

1851.	1850.	1849.	1848.	1847.	1846.
813,401	109,491	233,775	538,446	319,486	1,004,661

STATEMENT OF THE PRICES OF SPERM AND WHALE OIL AND WHALEBONE ON THE 1ST AND 15TH OF EACH MONTH OF THE YEAR 1853.

	Sperm Oil.		Whale Oil.		Whalebone.	
	1st.	15th.	1st.	15th.	1st.	15th.
January.....	120	124½	60	61½	41	41
February.....	127	130	62	62½	41	35
March.....	129½	129½	65½	65	31	30
April.....	128	127½	55	58½	29	29½
May.....	128	127	58	51	29½	30½
June.....	125½	124	51½	52½	32	34½
July.....	123	122	52	52½	34	33½
August.....	121	122	51½	52½	33½	34
September.....	120	120½	53	55	34	34½
October.....	120	123	57½	59	34	36
November.....	124	125	70	70	36	38
December.....	126	127	65	65	38½	39

THE AVERAGE PRICE OF OIL AND BONE FOR THE FOLLOWING YEARS WAS—

	Sperm Oil.	Whale Oil.	Whalebone.		Sperm Oil.	Whale Oil.	Whalebone.
1853..	124½	58½	34½	1846..	88	32½	33½
1852..	123½	68 1-6	50½	1845..	90½	36½	40
1851..	127½	45 5-16	34½	1844..	63	34½	35½
1850..	127 7-10	49 1-10	34 4-10	1843..	73	33½	23
1849..	108 9-10	49 9-10	31 8-10	1842..	94	31½	19½
1848..	100½	36	30½	1841..	100	30½	19
1847..	87½	33½	34				

IMPORTS OF LIQUOR INTO THE UNITED STATES.

The importation of wines, spirits, &c., into the United States in the year ending June 30, 1853, is from an official report:—

	Gallons.	Value.	Average cost per gallon.
Maderia.....	226,403	\$105,628	46.65
Sherry.....	313,048	155,819	49.77
Sicily.....	190,205	45,794	20.08
Port, in casks.....	662,001	266,085	44.13
Claret, in casks.....	2,633,802	482,827	18.33
Other red wines.....	1,374,416	377,482	27.46
Other white wines.....	1,276,290	305,287	23.94
Brandy.....	3,854,956	3,251,403	84.34
Grain spirits.....	1,060,456	424,638	40.40
Other spirits.....	236,477	106,501	31.35
Beer, ale, and porter, from England..	397,420	284,847	74.55
Beer, ale, and porter, from Scotland..	131,357	77,414	58.93
Total.....	12,355,831	\$5,883,230	

WHEAT AND FLOUR TRADE OF FRANCE.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF WHEAT INTO AND FROM FRANCE, FROM 1816 TO 1852.

	Imports in Hectolitres.	Exports.
From 1816 to 1821.....	6,247,178
" 1822 to 1827.....	1,248,601
" 1828 to 1832.....	9,527,466
" 1833 to 1837.....	944,130
" 1838 to 1842.....	1,126,478
" 1843 to 1847.....	18,697,132
" 1848 to 1852.....	12,187,416
Total.....	35,528,249	14,880,147

IMPORTATIONS OF WHEAT AND FLOUR INTO FRANCE, FROM 1846 TO 1847, BOTH INCLUSIVE.

From	Hectolitres.*	Quintals† flour.
Russia.....	4,706,116
Sardinia.....	2,191,109
Turkey.....	2,182,484
Egypt.....	247,518
England.....	894,773
Germany.....	667,847
Belgium.....	563,087
Sicily.....	505,151
America....	874,730	497,794
Tuscany.....	279,774
Spain.....	247,242
Hanse Towns.....	212,899
Denmark.....	179,434
Mecklenburg.....	141,209
Roman States, Holland, Algeria, Austria, &c.	262,167
Sandry places.....	800,000
Total.....	13,655,340	797,794

—the amount of hectolitres being equal, in English measure, to 4,708,739 imperial quarters, and the quintals to 881,197 barrels, at 14 stones per barrel, American flour.

LUMBER TRADE OF BANGOR.

BANGOR, January 7, 1854.

FREEMAN HUNT, *Editor of the Merchants' Magazine*.—

DEAR SIR:—Inclosed you have a statement of the lumber surveyed at Bangor for the season of 1853.

Respectfully Yours,
SAMUEL HARRIS.

LUMBER SURVEYED AT BANGOR FOR THE SEASON OF 1853.

Allen, James.....	10,059,917	Pierce, Chas. W.....	7,374,590
Cummings, G. W.....	10,633,262	Pearson, W. T.....	1,034,276
Croesman, C. V.....	11,880,158	Rowe, Thos. F.....	568,495
Bragdon, Gardner.....	902,243	Ricker, L. B.....	630,867
Emery, Seth.....	7,820,455	Short, John.....	707,517
Fisher, Herman.....	3,430,086	Smith, Albert.....	12,406,545
Furber, S. W.....	134,097	Wiggin, N. B.....	5,441,828
Haines, Penly.....	6,141,990	Washburn, G. W.....	2,779,395
Kimball, Daniel.....	6,701,298	Webster, John.....	6,883,549
Lincoln, Isaac.....	3,863,895	Webster, Mark.....	6,457,533
Millikin, Joseph.....	10,508,594	Young, Aaron.....	7,600,631
Meservey, A. L.....	5,538,954	Young, Jonathan.....	8,063,287
Norris, James.....	12,812,174	Young, John C.....	12,290,322
Oakes, John.....	436,415	Hammatt, George.....	5,700,098
Pierce, Nathaniel.....	6,109,334	Cummings, F. J.....	239,957
Pratt, Atherton.....	7,790,522		
Total number of feet surveyed.....			182,942,284

PHILADELPHIA TRADE IN BREADSTUFFS.

We give below a statement of the inspections of flour, rye flour, and corn meal, in each of the last ten years, and also the comparative prices of flour and grain in the Philadelphia market on the 21st of January, for eight years:—

* A hectolitre of wheat is equal to 11½ pecks imperial English measure. † A quintal of flour is equal to about 15 stones of 14 lbs.

TOTAL INSPECTIONS FOR TEN YEARS.

	Flour.	Rye flour.	Corn meal.		Flour.	Rye flour.	Corn meal.
1853	973,091	16,963	99,516	1848	511,279½	24,747	162,983
1852	779,836	11,862	76,881	1847	708,981	27,906	300,609
1851	683,561½	19,933	71,677	1846	674,648	33,520	170,143
1850	655,828	34,776	103,210	1845	533,436½	22,010	112,426
1849	633,533½	39,109	100,514	1844	466,132	25,526	112,533

The following comparative statement of the prices of flour and grain in the Philadelphia market on the 21st of January during the past eight years, may not prove uninteresting at this time:—

	Flour.	Rye Flour.	Corn m'l.	Wheat.	Corn.
1854	\$7 75 a	\$5 25	\$3 75	\$1 75 a 1 85	80 a 83c
1853	5 31½ a 5 37½	4 25	3 50	1 20 a 1 25	61 a 67
1852	4 25 a 4 31½	3 50	3 12½	0 92 a 1 00	64 a 65
1851	4 62½ a 4 75	3 50	2 87½	1 02 a 1 12	58 a 62
1850	5 00 a 5 12½	2 87½	2 75	1 07 a 1 15	62 a 64
1849	5 25 a 5 31½	3 12½	2 75	1 13 a 1 16	60 a 62
1848	6 25 a 6 37½	4 50	3 00	1 40 a 1 44	61 a 63
1847	4 94 a 5 00	3 75	3 50	1 05 a 1 14	64 a 75
1846	5 13½ a 5 31½	4 00	3 50	1 12 a 1 17	60 a 67

The above quotations are for superfine flour, red and white wheat, and white and white and yellow corn.

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

VALPARAISO PORT CHARGES, &c.

PORT CHARGES—LAUNCH HIRE—WEIGHTS—CURRENCY, ETC.

PORT CHARGES. Tonnage dues, twenty cents per ton. Light dues, three and one-eighth cents per ton. Captain of the port's fees and role, four dollars. Harbor master's fees, eight dollars. Whale ships, vessels in distress, and vessels in ballast, (or discharging under fifty packages,) are exempt from tonnage and light dues. Tonnage dues paid at one port are not levied in another. The coasting trade is prohibited to foreign flags, but they may discharge portions of their original cargoes in one or more ports, and load Chilean produce for a foreign port. The only ports of entry for foreign flags are Ancud, Valdivia, Talcahuano, Tome, Constitution, Valparaiso, Coquimbo, and Caldera. Vessels from abroad entering any other ports are liable to seizure.

All communication with the shore is prohibited until after the visit of the captain of the port and revenue officer, who will require a general manifest of the cargo, or the bills of lading and a list of stores. Twenty-four hours are allowed for corrections of errors or omissions. For any mistakes discovered afterwards the captain is subject to fines or seizures. Passengers' luggage is free.

LAUNCH HIRE.—On general merchandise, forty cents per ton; on coals, sixty cents per ton. Ballasting, (sand) or discharging ballast, sixty cents per ton. Labor on board one dollar per day.

STORAGE. Goods may be stored in government warehouses for an indefinite period paying storage on valuation: 1st year, ½ per cent per quarter, and ¼ per cent per quarter the 2d and subsequent years; but every two years merchandise must be either taken out for consumption, re-exported, or storage renewed. If re-exported within one year no storage is charged.

WEIGHTS ARE SPANISH WEIGHT. One quintal of 100 lbs. equal to 101½ lbs, English. One arroba, 25 lbs. One Marc, 8 Spanish oz.

MEASURES. On fanega of—

Wheat*	155	Beans	200
Bran*	84	Garvanzos	200
Barley	155	Lentils	200
Maize	160	Crushed Candeal Wheat	160
Nuts	96		

* At Concepcion a fanega of wheat is about 14 per cent heavier. Bran 15 per cent lighter.

CURRENCY. Accounts are kept in dollars and cents. Eight reals, one dollar—one hard dollar—\$1 06½. One 5 franc piece, \$1 00.

One ounce or doubloon, \$17 25. One sovereign, \$5.

Gold and silver coin of U. S. A. is current at its nominal value. Ounces, other than Chilean, are current at about \$15 50.

CLASSIFICATION OF ARTICLES, IMPORTS INTO UNITED STATES.

The following Treasury Circular has been issued under the head of "General Instructions, No. 15," for the guidance of Collectors and other officers of Customs:—

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, Dec. 18, 1853.

SIR:—I have reason to believe that there are material defects in the forms and times of rendering the returns required of collectors by the act of the 20th February, 1820, as well as in the mode of entering, keeping, and exhibiting the matter contained in the same in the Register's office; and desirous to introduce such improvements as may be practicable, and may secure greater exactness and promptitude in the exhibits required by the act, my object in addressing you is to obtain such information and aid as may be conducive to that end.

There is now much diversity on the part of collectors in reporting the articles imported, and consequently delay and difficulty in the Register's office in assimilating and distributing such articles to recognized species or classes. To remedy this evil it seems to me to be necessary for this department to frame a nomenclature of articles, to notify the list to all collectors for their observance, and for it to be varied only by authority from time to time as the importation of new articles, to be reported by collectors, or other circumstances, shall render expedient. To enable the department to construct a proper nomenclature, I will thank you, as soon as may be, to transmit to this department a table, in alphabetical order, showing—

First—The names of all articles imported, whether enumerated or non-enumerated, subject to duty, or free.

Second—The commercial or scientific denomination of the general class to which such variety belongs.

Third—The place of growth or manufacture.

Fourth—The rate of duty, if any, on such article.

Fifth—Such information of the character of articles not in common or familiar use, and of the purposes to which they are most usually applied, as it may be in your power to furnish.

Appended to this list you will add a list of such articles as in your opinion may be aggregated or classified for the reasons contained in the proviso to the third section of the act referred to, and a similar list and appendix of the articles exported. At the same time it may be proper to revise and rearrange the list of countries to and from which our commerce passes. And I will thank you to look into this branch of the subject also, and favor me with a table, in alphabetical order, of the places proper, in your opinion, to be recognized and established as the places of trade contemplated by the act in these returns. The same in respect to the time when it is assumed the exports take place. I am not aware that any change, except in the time of rendition, is required in the present mode of returning, registering, or exhibiting the tonnage; but if any defect in it occurs to you, and you can suggest an improvement, it will be acceptable to the department for you to do so.

It is proposed that the returns of commerce or navigation shall be made as at present, for quarters; but that they shall be made as soon as possible after the close of the quarter to which the return refers instead of being delayed, as at this time, for weeks, and even months together. You will please inform me if the business cannot be so conducted in your office, from day to day, so that the returns may be made within a period of from one to five days, according to the business of your district. The last point will be to secure the most ready and exact mode of keeping and rendering those returns in the several districts, and of registering and exhibiting the results at the Treasury. The probability is much diversity to the various Custom Houses in this particular. Also, you will explain the mode observed in your office, sending copies of the forms used, and the reasons that, in your judgment, recommend such forms over others.

I am respectfully,
(Signed)

JAMES GUTHRIE.

COMMERCIAL CHARGES AT MELBOURNE, AUSTRALIA.

COMMISSIONS—RATE OF INTEREST ON DUTIES, FREIGHTS, AND ACCOUNTS—CHARGES, ETC.

Annexed will be found the scale of commercial charges authorized by the committee of the Melbourne Chamber of Commerce:—

COMMISSIONS.

	Per cent.
On cash payments when not in funds	5
On cash payments when in funds	2½
On purchase and shipment of gold dust	1½
On purchase and shipment if drawn against,	2½
On the amount of invoice in either case:—On purchase and shipment of merchandise, and on other purchases, when not in funds	5
On the same, when in funds	2½
On private sales, and net proceeds of sales by auction, whether for cash or credit, including the purchase of bank bills for remittance—minimum rate..	7½
On goods received and forwarded—on their value	1
On consignments of merchandise withdrawn—on invoice	2½
On debts, rents, and other accounts collected, recovered, and remitted	5
On sale or purchase of bills of exchange	1
On bills of exchange collected, and on moneys received or paid, from which no other commission is derived	2½
On letters of credit granted	2½
On letters of credit drawn against,	2½
On freight or charter procured for vessels, and freight or passage money collected	5
On ships' disbursements and outfits,	5
On money obtained on bottomry or respondentia	2
On insurance effected or orders written for insurance	½
On insurance losses, partial or total, settled, or on premiums recovered	2½
Guaranty—bonds, indorsement of bills, contracts for goods, or other engagements	2½
N. B. All sales of goods understood to be guaranteed, unless there be special orders to the contrary.	
Guaranty on remittances when required	2½
Guaranty or security for contracts	5
Acting as trustee under assignments	5
On advance on produce for shipment	2½
Advances and current accounts not liquidated at the end of the season, (March 31,) the balance to be charged as a fresh advance, subject to a commission of	5

INTEREST.

On advances for duties and freight	8
On accounts	10

CHARGES.

For passing accounts with the government for emigrant ships when the whole freight is payable in England,	£10 10s.
For checking expenditure accounts on behalf of charters of passenger vessels, and granting certificates	10 10
For entering ship inward at the custom house, where the original port of departure is in Australia, Van Dieman's Land, or New Zealand	2 2
For entering and clearing ship outward, where the port of destination is in the same places as above	1 1
For entering ship inward from other ports	3 3
For entering and clearing ship outward, if laden here	3 3
For entering and clearing ship outward, in ballast	1 1
For attending delivery of cargo from lighters, and giving notice to consignees	per day. 10½
Fee for each surveyor within the city	1 1
Fee at Hobson's Bay or Williams Town	2 2

CHARGES FOR WAREHOUSING.

On all measurement goods requiring to be dry-housed....per week.	{ 2s. per ton of 40 cubic feet.
On liquidsper week.	{ 2s. per ton of 252 gallons.
On sugar, rice, salt, flour, and all other articles requiring to be dry-housedper week.	1s. per ton.
On all other merchandiseper week.	6d. per ton.
And an additional charge for all goods as above, for housing and unhousing, according to the bulk or weight of the article.	
On wool—for receiving, weighing, marking, and delivering.....	2s. per bale.
Do., for rent after fourteen days, at the rate ofper week.	6d. per bale.
In addition to the tare on wool, an allowance for draft of.....	1 lb. for cwt.
On tallow—for receiving, weighing, marking, and delivering.....	5s. per ton.
Do., for rent after fourteen days, at the rate ofper week.	1s. per ton.
On grain—if in bags, including housing and unhousing.. first month.	4d. per bush.
Do., for any longer timeper week.	½d. "
On grain—if in bulk, or if required to be weighed, extra charge to be made.	

W. W. WILSON, Honorary Secretary.
Chamber of Commerce and Commercial Exchange, Melbourne.

J. B. WERE, Chairman.
JAMES GRAHAM, Dep'y Ch.

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS AT SYDNEY, N. S. W.

DUTIES—COMMISSIONS—WAREHOUSE RENT—SEAMEN'S WAGES,
DUTIES.

	s.	d.
Brandy and Gin, proofper gallon.	6	0
Rum and Whisky, proof.	4	0
All other spirits sweetened	6	0
Wine.....	1	0
Ale and Beer, in wood	0	1
Ale and Beer, bottled.	0	2
Tobacco, manufactured.....per lb.	1	6
Tobacco, unmanufactured.....	1	0
Cigars and Snuff	2	0
Refined Sugarper cwt.	3	4
Sugars, unrefined	2	6
Molasses.....	1	8
Teaper lb.	0	1½
Coffee	0	0½
Currents, Raisins, and other dried fruits.....	0	0½
All other goods whether British or foreign.....		free.

COMMISSIONS.

On all sales effected.....	5	per cent.
" " if guarantied.....	2½	" extra.
All purchases, if in funds.....	2½	"
Otherwise.....	5	"

Auction sales from one to five per cent, according to the nature and extent.

WAREHOUSE RENT.

Measurement goods	6d. per week, per ton.
Liquors	8d. " "
Sugar, Rice, Salt, etc.....	4d. " "
Iron, Lead, etc	8d. " "

SEAMEN'S WAGES.

Coastwise.....per month.	£10
England	13
England.....by the run.	50
Eastern Ports.....offered.	15

Sydney is a free port. The navigation laws are in full force. No charges whatever on shipping except pilotage.

REGULATIONS OF THE LIVERPOOL CORN TRADE.

The following rules, adopted by the Liverpool Corn Trade Association, were to go into operation on and after the 1st of January, 1854:—

**RULES FOR REGULATING THE USAGES AND CUSTOMS OF THE LIVERPOOL CORN TRADE,
ADOPTED AT A GENERAL MEETING OF THE MEMBERS OF THE ASSOCIATION.**

1. That buyers of all grain, flour, and meal, must approve of the bulk as early as possible after the purchase is effected. Should no written notice be sent to the seller by six o'clock on the day of sale, rejecting the bulk, or stating a cause why it cannot be examined within that time, the purchase to be binding.

2. That no cartage be allowed or incurred at the seller's expense.

3. That the seller's responsibility shall cease on delivery into carts or other conveyances from the ship, quay, or warehouse—the purchaser finding sacks, if required.

4. That rent and fire insurance on all grain, flour, and meal, in warehouse, be borne by the seller for fourteen days from the day of sale, unless delivery shall have previously taken place.

5. That deliveries be completed within fourteen running days from the day of sale.

6. That seven running days from the day of sale be allowed to buyers of flour, during which period they may reject sour. On and after the eighth day, damaged flour only to be rejected.

7. That each barrel of flour from Canada, and all the American ports, be considered to weigh 13.20 gross. All deficiency from this weight to be allowed for. Foreign sack flour to be weighed gross and flour in sack to be invoiced per 280 lbs.

8. That all disputes arising out of transactions connected with the trade, be referred to any two members of the committee, (chosen by the disputing parties,) such members choosing a third arbitrator, who shall also be a member of the committee. A fee of 5s. to be paid on the entering of each case, for the support of the Association, and a fee of 21s. to be paid each arbitrator for every requisite sitting.

ROBERT WOODWARD, Chairman.

OF THE VALUE OF GOODS FROM PRUSSIA TO UNITED STATES.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE, Washington, Feb. 2, 1854.

The following ordinance of the Prussian Minister of Commerce, concerning declarations of the value of goods sent to the United States, a translation of which has been transmitted to this department by Isaac C. Bates, Esq., United States Consul at Aix la Chapelle, is published for general information:—

“According to the existing revenue laws of the United States of North America, the value of all foreign merchandise imported into the United States must be declared on oath by the owner thereof.

“If the merchandise be the property of persons residing in the United States, (and this takes place in those cases where German goods are purchased by commissioners or agents of North American commercial houses,) this oath is taken before the collectors of customs in the ports of the United States, upon arrival of the merchandise.

“If the merchandise belongs to persons who do not reside in the United States, (and this will take place in the case of goods consigned to North America by subjects from this side,) the invoice must be sworn to by the owner, before a consul or commercial agent of the United States of North America, or before some public authority who is authorized to receive declarations on oath.

“An exact compliance with these regulations, from which many departures have taken place until now, has been recently ordered by a circular of the Treasury Department of the United States.

“The laws of this country not giving any legal sanction to oaths in confirmation of the value of consignments of goods sworn to before the consuls of a foreign State residing in Prussia, nor even before any magistrate of the country, negotiations are now pending for the substitution of the affirmation, (or declaration,) as contained in the 129th section of the penal code, in place of the formal oath required in verification of the value of merchandise to be exported, as it is declared in the invoices.

“Meanwhile, in order to obviate any interruption of the very important commercial intercourse with North America, it is necessary that the merchants on this side shall

be furnished with the opportunity of verifying the value of consignments to the United States, according to the provisions of the 129th section of the penal code, the magistrates, and for merchants living in the country the royal 'sandrathes' are therefore to be directed, upon the application of the owners of merchandise designed to be sent on consignment to the United States, to receive an affirmation in the place of an oath, in regard to the correctness of the value declared in the invoices. Upon the presentation of the invoices of merchandise designed to be sent on consignment, this affirmation in place of the oath is to be recorded in a protocol; or if the necessary affirmation in place of the oath is already written beforehand upon the invoice, the protocol shall mention the acknowledgment of this affirmation. A certificate of this transaction, furnished with the official seal and signature, is to be annexed to the invoice, and handed back to the applicant as expeditiously as possible.

"Before the reception or acknowledgment of an affirmation, instead of oath, the purport of section 129 of the penal code shall be explicitly stated to the person making the declaration, and that this has been done is to be noted in the protocol.

"The invoice of the merchandise furnished, with the official certificate, must be sent by the consignors, as heretofore, for examination and authentication, to the consular authorities of the United States living nearest to their place of residence, or, in case there are none, to the consulates of the United States at the port of shipment.

"I accordingly direct the Royal Regency to furnish the authorities concerned herein with instructions to make it their special duty to give quick dispatch to applications which may be made, and to bring the above-stated arrangement to the knowledge of the merchants of their districts."

NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

MEDITERRANEAN, LIGHT ON PLANA ISLAND.

COAST OF VALENCIA, SPAIN.

HYDROGRAPHIC OFFICE, January 7th, 1854.

The Spanish government has given notice that from especial circumstances, it has not been possible to display the light on Plana Island, on the coast of Valencia, on the day which had been fixed for that purpose.

And therefore the notice number 146, issued by this office, which states that the above light would be shown on the 1st January, is for the present canceled.

LIGHT ON CAPE CORROBEDO, COAST OF SPAIN, (ATLANTIC.)

HYDROGRAPHIC OFFICE, December 31st, 1853.

The Spanish Government has given notice that on the 20th of February next, a fixed light will be displayed from Cape Corrobedo, in Galicia, on the northwest coast of Spain.

It will stand in 42° 34' 38" N. and 9° 4' 32" W. of Greenwich; and being 102 feet above the level of the sea, will be visible from the deck of a moderate sized vessel, at the distance of fifteen miles.

MARINE SIGNALS AT THE BAR OF TAMPICO.

NEW ORLEANS, January 30, 1854.

The following signals have been ordered to be made at the Bar of Tampico, for vessels at sea:—

Two black balls at the yard arm of a small yard, placed horizontally from north to south, at the upper extremity of the mast that supports the signal light, means that the bar is not passable.

One black ball at the north yard arm, means that the channel is in that direction and that it is passable.

One black ball at the south yard arm, means that the channel is in that direction, and that it is passable.

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One black ball amidships of the yard, means that the channel is in the middle, and that it is passable.

Two black balls, one under the other, at the north yard arm, asks the vessel if she wants provisions.

Two black balls on the south yard arm asks if she wants water.

When the vessel wants what is asked of her, she is to answer by hoisting her flag at the fore.

F. DE ARRANGOIX, Mexican Consul-General.

VESSELS WRECKED IN 1853.

A complete summary of the principal vessels wrecked during the year 1853 is given below. Appended to this statement is a recapitulation, exhibiting the aggregate loss of life by marine disasters during the year. The total number of persons lost was 1,924. The destruction of the clipper *White Squall*, the mammoth ship *Great Republic*, the packet *Joseph Walker*, and the United States mail steamship *Cherokee*—accidents occurring while those ships lay at this port—are included in the catalogue; for, although they are not properly to be classed among the disasters at sea, they were yet nearly ready for sea, and one had just reached port and was discharging cargo. Perhaps the heaviest losses, unattended by destruction of human life, were occasioned by the burning of these four vessels.

NUMBER OF LIVES LOST BY WRECKS IN 1853.

Date.	Vessel.	No. lost.	Date.	Vessel.	No. lost.
Jan. 6	Schooner <i>James C. Fisher</i>	2	Sept. 25	Dutch steamer in <i>Zuyder Zee</i>	102
	<i>Louisa Emilia</i>	40	Sept. 25	Iron ship <i>Camerton</i>	30
	<i>Brig Lilly</i>	32	28	Schooner <i>Pledge</i>	5
Feb. 16	Steamship <i>Independence</i> ..	129	29	Ship <i>Annie Jane</i>	300
	<i>Brig Vintage</i>	10	Oct. 23	Steamer <i>Ajax</i>	5
Feb. 24	Schooner <i>Mary E. Balch</i> ..	2		Schooner <i>S. P. Burnham</i> ..	5
	Ship <i>Queen Victoria</i>	55		Ship <i>Liverpool</i>	15
Mar. 4	Schooner <i>Splendid</i>	2	Nov. 28	Screw steamship <i>Marshall</i>	150
	Schooner <i>Narcissa</i>	2	Dec. 4	Schooner <i>Henry Clay</i>	1
Mar. 10	Sea Bird	3	8	Revenue cutter <i>Hamilton</i> ..	7
April 1	Iron steamer <i>Duke of Sutherland</i>	6	24	Steamship <i>San Francisco</i> ..	150
April 29	Steamer <i>Ocean Wave</i>	28	29	Clipper ship <i>Staffordshire</i> ..	140
May 15	St'mship <i>Monumental City</i>	32		Schooner <i>Moselle</i>	4
June 17	Ship <i>Nesree</i>	340		Schooner <i>Lowell</i>	3
July 20	Ship <i>Lady Evelyn</i>	264	Dec. 31	Steamer <i>Pearl</i>	18
July 28	Ship <i>Charles Clark</i>	5		<i>Brig Hyperion</i>	8
Aug. 23	Bark <i>Meridiu</i>	4			
Total lives lost (33 vessels)		1,899			
Add estimate coasting vessels, &c.		25			

Aggregate mortality..... 1,924

NUMBER OF VESSELS.

Number of sea vessels lost during the year.....	110
Fishing smacks destroyed in gales	20
Total number of vessels destroyed	130

NEW HARBOR FOR MONTREAL.

The Montreal Harbor Commissioners recommend the construction of a new harbor for that city, deep enough to accommodate sea-going vessels, and including an area of some 18 or 20 acres. They propose that the harbor be constructed between *Mun's Island* and the main land. Here, beside being convenient to the railway trade, it would be connected with the canal, which is an important consideration. The harbor is expected to cost \$300,000.

JOURNAL OF MINING AND MANUFACTURES.

FOUNDATION OF LOWELL AND CALICO PRINTING.

In 1844 the Middlesex Mechanic Association of Lowell requested, by a unanimous resolution, the Hon. Nathan Appleton to sit for a portrait to be placed in the hall of that institution. To this request Mr. A. signified a ready compliance, and the portrait was completed by Healy, a distinguished artist, in 1846.

The letter of Mr. Appleton to the Association in reply to the invitation, contains facts relative to the early history of manufactures in Lowell, which are of interest, and worthy of record, as will be seen by the following extracts :—

I consider myself indebted for this invitation to my connection with the original foundation of the city of Lowell. Under this idea, the figure is represented as contemplating the process of calico printing by the presses of the Merrimack Company, the first establishment formed for this purpose in the United States.

As connected with this fact, and as constituting the germ of the present city of Lowell, the following circumstances might be thought interesting. Mr. Patrick T. Jackson and myself had been amongst the original associates who established the Boston Manufacturing Company at Waltham, in which the power loom was first brought into successful operation on this side the Atlantic. The success of that establishment had satisfied us that the time had arrived for undertaking the manufacture and printing of calicoes, and in the summer of 1821 we made an excursion into New Hampshire, in search of a suitable water power.

Soon after our return, the idea was suggested to Mr. Jackson of purchasing the stock of the Patucket Canal, on the Merrimack river, together with such lands as might be necessary for using the great water power which might be created by its enlargement. He communicated the same to me. After ascertaining that Mr. Kirk Boott was willing to join us in the enterprise, and to become the manager and agent to carry it into effect, we proceeded through trustworthy agents to purchase the canal, and the most important adjoining lands. It was not until these had been secured that we thought proper to visit the scene. I well recollect the first visit. It was in the month of November, 1821, and a slight snow covered the ground. The party consisted of Messrs. P. T. Jackson, Kirk Boott, Warren Dutton, Paul Moody, John W. Boott, and myself. We perambulated the grounds and scanned the capabilities, and it may be worth recording, that so sensible were we of its future importance, that I distinctly recollect the remark made by one of the party, that some of us might probably live to see the place contain twenty thousand inhabitants. We proceeded with new associates to organize the Merrimack Manufacturing Company, with a capital of six hundred thousand dollars, to which corporation the whole property was conveyed. The enlargement of the canal was finished during the two following summers, and on or about the first day of September, 1823, the first water wheel performed its revolutions. The city now contains, I am told, upwards of thirty thousand inhabitants.

In the *Merchants' Magazine* for April, 1848, we published a biographical sketch of Patrick Tracy Jackson, written by John A. Lowell, Esq., which at the time elicited a letter from Mr. Appleton. From that letter we make an extract, explanatory of the letter of Mr. Lowell, which we give below. Mr. Appleton, referring to his letter to the Middlesex Mechanic Association says :—

Your memoir of Mr. Jackson, published in *Hunt's Merchants' Magazine* for April last, contains an account of his connection with the original purchase of the lands and water power, constituting the present city of Lowell. The discrepancy of the two accounts cannot fail to strike every one comparing them, as irreconcilable, without the supposition of a decided mistake, on the one part or the other. Your memoir is at variance with my statement, inasmuch as it represents Mr. Jackson as acting singly in the conception of the project, and as having made the necessary purchases single-handed, on his own account and risk; whilst I represent myself as participating fully in the original counsel, and, in conjunction with Mr. Boott, as having shared equally in all the purchases necessary to carry the project into effect."

Mr. Lowell, in reply to Mr. Appleton, satisfactorily explains the discrepancy, to which the former alludes in the preceding extract, as will be seen by the following letter:—

Boston, May 30, 1848.

MY DEAR SIR:—You call my attention to an apparent discrepancy between my account of the origin of the city of Lowell, in a memoir of the late Mr. Patrick T. Jackson, published in *Hunt's Merchants' Magazine* for April last, and that furnished by you in a letter to the Middlesex Mechanics' Association, of December 30, 1846.

My account was founded, as you are aware, upon a written statement by Mr. Jackson himself. On carefully collating this with your letter, it appears to me that they are entirely reconcilable. It is well known, and was always admitted by Mr. Jackson, that the scheme of establishing works for making and printing calicoes originated with you, and that his hopes of success in that particular business rested mainly on your opinion. The manufacture at Waltham had been confined to plain or unprinted goods. To carry out this scheme, your attention had been turned to the necessity of procuring some locality, with a better water power. When Mr. Jackson proposed to yourself and Mr. Kirk Boott to join him in the purchase of the Patucket Canal and the adjoining lands, you at once acquiesced, and the whole thing was completed at your joint risk and expense, before it was offered to the proprietors of the Waltham Company.

So far both accounts agree. But Mr. Jackson says that previously to making this proposition to you, he had taken measures to secure this property, and incurred risk and responsibility. I do not see that this conflicts in the slightest degree with your statement. The moment the project was presented to you, you heartily concurred in it, and assumed your part of the expense and hazard. This is all you say in your letter to the Association. That expense and hazard was in no degree diminished by the fact that Mr. Jackson had conceived the scheme and taken the first steps for its execution. The only reason why I did not relate in my memoir your share in the honor of this enterprise, was that I thought it more proper in an obituary notice to avoid naming any person still living.

I am, with much respect, your most obedient servant,

HOB. NATHAN APPLETON.

J. A. LOWELL.

SILK MANUFACTURES AT LYONS, FRANCE.

We have received from our friend, Dr. C. S. J. GOODRICH, United States Consul at Lyons, the autograph letter of the President of the Chamber of Commerce at Lyons, in answer to some questions addressed by our consul to that functionary. Dr. Goodrich writes us that the President of the Chamber is the only person at Lyons who can give the statistics:—

LE PRÉSIDENT DE LA CHAMBRE DE COMMERCE A LYON.

To the Consul of the United States.

LYONS, Dec. 19, 1853.

SIR:—I regret not having answered sooner your favor of the 26th of October. My delay has been occasioned by absence on my part, and the difficulty of answering the questions you propose.

There are no exact statistics of the silk manufacture at Lyons, and I can only give you a general estimate, for the correctness of which I cannot vouch, but it approaches very nearly to the exact results.

During the present year and the two preceding, the manufacturers of silk at Lyons have employed about sixty thousand machines (metiers), scattered over a district of about forty miles. These machines have consumed about two millions five hundred thousand kilogrammes of silk, valued at one hundred and sixty millions francs, and the manufactured stuffs at two hundred and fifty millions of francs.

It is estimated that the home consumption amounts to one-fourth or one-third of that quantity. The balance is exported to all parts of the civilized world. But by far the largest foreign market is found in the United States.

Such are, sir, the only general particulars which I can give you at present; and if there are any other points upon which you desire to be informed, I will endeavor to satisfy you, if possible. Accept, sir, my high considerations.

C. S. GOODRICH.

BRESSE L'AÎNÉ.

THE MANUFACTURE OF SOAPS AND PERFUMERY.

PERFUMERY has been used, to more or less extent, by all civilized nations, as far back as we have records, both in sacred and profane history. It is recorded in Exodus that the Lord commanded Moses to mix certain perfumes into an holy ointment, and anoint therewith Aaron, his sons, the altar of the tabernacle, and the vessels belonging thereto. Furthermore, Moses speaks of being commanded to take other sweet spices, and prepare them after the manner of the apothecary, into a pure and holy perfume, to be offered up to the Lord. These perfumes must have been known to the Egyptians, as Moses was residing in that country at that time. There is abundant evidence in the sacred writings of their being used by the Hebrews in their religious rites and ceremonies, for perfuming their bodies while living, as well as for the purpose of embalming them after death. Perfumes were in general use among the Greeks and Romans, and, together with sweet-scented flowers, were intimately connected with Athenian dinners, and used at sacrifices to regale their heathen deities; at feasts, to increase the pleasures of sensation; at funerals, to overpower the cadaverous smells, and appease the manes of the dead; and in theaters, to counteract the offensive effluvia arising from a crowd. The saloons where any entertainment was to be given were perfumed by burning myrrh, frankincense, and other articles. The suppliers of perfumery occupied a considerable place in the list of artisans who contributed to the embellishment of a Grecian lady of fashion. There was a statute of Solon forbidding the sale of perfumery by the male sex. Socrates objected to the use altogether. "There is the same smell," said he, "in a gentleman and a slave, when both are perfumed." The only odors worth cultivating, in his opinion, were those arising from honorable toils and the "smell of gentility." But notwithstanding the advice of the wise men, the people still adhered to their tastes and inclinations; they pomatumed their hair, scented their handkerchiefs, and laved their limbs in fragrant waters. The custom thus established has been practiced by succeeding ages, and diffused a great influence upon the people. Perfumery is now generally used by all nations.

That eminent chemist, Baron Liebig, says—"The civilization and refinement of a nation is shown by the quantity and quality of soap which they consume." France is the grand bazar and fashionable depot for all the exquisite productions of this art; her people consider perfumery as one of the necessities of life—and they not only use immense quantities, but scatter an extensive surplus throughout other countries. Large quantities are consumed in the United States. We not only have extensive warehouses for its exclusive sale, but the assortment of a drug-store is not complete without an extensive stock of perfumery, which has become a principal part of the business of an apothecary. The passion for perfumery is not confined to any particular class—for while the wealthy and fashionable purchase the delicately fragrant extracts and highly perfumed soaps, the humbler classes content themselves with cheaper articles, according to their limited means. The manufacturer must therefore produce all the different varieties and qualities to supply the wants of the public. Formerly, most of our choice perfumes were imported from different parts of Europe, principally from England and France. From the former, our shaving and toilet soaps; and from the latter, perfumed spirits, extracts, pomades, oils, &c. The demand for perfumery, increasing with the rapid growth of the country, and consequently the greater indulgence in luxuries, has recently induced many to establish laboratories for manufacturing it at home. Messrs. Beck & Co., of Boston, have an extensive establishment for this branch of trade, and have exhibited soaps, perfumery, and other toilet articles, equal, if not superior to any in the world. They are the sole proprietors of Isaac Babbitt's cream soaps, which have become justly celebrated for the purity of the materials, and the perfect manner by which they are combined together. They employ experienced chemists, and the most competent men to conduct their establishment. They have commenced business under the most favorable auspices, and have already received the highest premiums from those fairs where their articles have been exhibited. They have also received testimonials from some of the most eminent chemists, of their purity and perfection. There are many flowering plants and shrubs in this country whose fragrance has never been extracted, to add to the already extensive catalogue of perfumes. Messrs. Beck & Co. have already added the May-flower, or trailing arbutus, and the clethra, two American wild-flowers, whose fragrance is not excelled by any of foreign growth. In addition to their articles for the toilet, they prepare cooking extracts for flavoring almost everything in the culinary department, which are got up with great care and good taste. Their washing powder, an excellent substitute for soap, intended for the laundry only, is an article of great merit, and will soon take the place of the many fluids invented for this purpose.

We have tested, by the almost daily use in our family, several of Mr. Beck's articles—particularly the shaving cream and soap, and are free to say that they have afforded entire satisfaction. As a whole, they are not surpassed, in our judgment, at home or abroad.

MANUFACTURE OF SALT IN NEW YORK.

The whole quantity of salt manufactured and inspected on the Onondaga Salt Springs Reservation (in the State of New York) during the year 1853, is *five millions, four hundred and four thousand, four hundred and fifty-three bushels*. The Salt Springs belong to the State of New York, and are leased to the manufacturers of the article.

The number of bushels of Onondaga salt reaching tide-water, and the ports of Buffalo, Oswego, and Whitehall, during the year, is as follows:—

Tide-water	92,491	Oswego	2,734,264
Buffalo	1,055,723	Whitehall	14,686

The following statement shows the number of bushels of salt made at the Onondaga Salt Springs since June 20, 1797, which is the date of the first leases of salt lots:—

1797.....bushels.	25,474	1825	bushels.	757,203
1798.....	57,928	1826		811,023
1799.....	42,574	1827		983,410
1800.....	50,000	1828		1,160,388
1801.....	No report.	1829		1,291,280
1802.....	75,593	1830		1,435,446
1803.....	90,335	1831		1,514,037
1804.....	No report.	1832		1,652,985
1805.....	154,071	1833		1,838,646
1806 from April 25....	122,557	1834		1,943,252
1807.....	165,448	1835		2,209,367
1808 { to April 13	181,808	1836		1,912,858
from April 13....	187,872	1837		2,161,287
1809 from June 14....	128,282	1838		2,575,033
1810.....	450,000	1839		2,864,718
1811.....	200,000	1840		2,622,305
1812.....	221,011	1841		3,340,769
1813.....	226,000	1842		2,291,903
1814.....	295,215	1843		3,127,500
1815.....	322,058	1844		4,003,554
1816.....	348,234	1845		3,762,358
1817.....	448,665	1846		3,833,581
1818.....	406,540	1847		3,951,351
1819.....	526,049	1848		4,737,126
1820.....	548,374	1849		5,083,369
1821.....	458,329	1850		4,268,919
1822.....	481,562	1851		4,614,117
1823.....	726,988	1852		4,922,533
1824.....	816,634	1853		4,404,453

A NEW MODE OF MANUFACTURING PAINT BRUSHES.

A very simple and effectual mode of manufacturing paint brushes, without involving the necessity of driving the handle through the center of the brush, has been invented by Adonijah Randel, of Williamsburgh, N. Y. The nature of his invention consists in placing the hair of which the brush is to be made in a metal ring, and securing it therein by cementing or sizing the roots, so as to prevent the escape of the hairs, and then uniting the back end of the ring by riveting or otherwise, with a back plate, which receives the handle. The hair is most effectually secured in this manner, and it forms a solid brush; it is easily constructed, durable, and more convenient than those in use. Measures have been taken to secure a patent.

LEAD TRADE OF THE UPPER MISSISSIPPI.

The following, from responsible authority, is a correct abstract of the statistics of the lead trade of the Upper Mississippi Mines from 1842 to 1864:—

Years.	No. of Pigs produced.	Weight in pounds.	Price of 1,000 lbs. Mineral.	Price of 100 lbs. Lead.	Actual value in Galena.
1842.....	447,909	31,853,630	\$12 85	\$2 24	\$702,821 21
1843.....	559,261	39,148,270	12 60	2 24	916,069 51
1844.....	624,672	43,727,040	16 88	2 82	1,220,367 12
1845.....	778,498	54,494,862	17 67	2 96	1,618,247 88
1846.....	732,403	51,268,210	17 33	2 88	1,481,651 26
1847.....	772,656	54,085,920	19 16	3 17	1,714,523 68
1848.....	681,989	47,737,880	19 82	3 24	1,548,705 69
1849.....	628,984	44,025,380	22 18	3 67	1,615,781 44
1850.....	568,589	39,801,230	24 10	4 20	1,671,651 66
1851.....	474,115	33,188,050	25 51	4 08	1,354,062 44
1852.....	488,628	28,603,960	25 87	4 12	1,178,482 05
1853.....	425,814	29,806,980	34 41	5 50	1,639,382 90
Total.....	7,103,448	497,241,360			\$16,557,988 94

We also have the following statement of the shipment of lead from the Upper Mississippi Mines, from March 21 to December 1, inclusive:—

Places from whence shipped.	No. of Pigs.	Weight in lbs.	Value at Mines.
Shipped south, via river,			
From Galena.....	318,543	22,298,010	\$1,226,340 55
From Dubuque.....	43,852	3,069,640	178,830 20
From Potosi.....	23,086	1,616,020	88,881 10
From Cassville.....	14,106	938,020	54,616 10
From Buena Vista.....	2,676	187,380	10,352 60
From mines on the east side of the river to the Lakes.....	23,471	1,642,970	90,363 05
Total.....	425,814	29,336,980	1,639,382 90

The above statements show the importance of the lead trade of the Galena mines—their product amounting in twelve years to nearly \$17,000,000. The opening of a railroad to Galena, next spring, and the introduction of machinery and capital in working the mines, is destined to add greatly to the amount of this trade, and to render Galena one of the most important cities of the West.

THE VALUE OF IRON.

To show how cheaply iron is obtained, and how the mechanical skill and labor expended upon it totally overshadow the price, a number of the *British Quarterly Review* gives the following curious and instructive calculation:—

Bar iron, worth £1 sterling, is worth, when worked into horse shoes....	£2 10 0
Table knives.....	36 0 0
Needles.....	71 0 0
Penknife blades.....	657 0 0
Polished buttons and buckles.....	897 0 0
Balance springs of watches.....	50,000 0 0
Cast iron, worth £1 sterling, is worth, when converted into machinery..	4 0 0
Larger ornamental work.....	45 0 0
Buckles and Berlin work.....	600 0 0
Neck chains.....	1,386 0 0
Shirt buttons.....	5,396 0 0

Thirty-one pounds of iron have been made into wire upwards of one hundred and eleven miles in length, and so fine was the fabric that a part was converted, in lieu of horse hair, into a barrister's wig. The process followed to effect this extraordinary tenuity consists of heating the iron, and passing it through rollers of eight inches diameter, going at the rate of four hundred revolutions per minute, down to No. 4 on the gauge. It is afterwards drawn cold down to No. 88 on the same gauge, and so on till it obtains the above length in miles.

THE MANUFACTURE OF SODA ASH.

Very strong furnaces are employed, and into each, according to its size, there is placed a quantity of salt, into which is poured about the same weight of the oil of vitriol. The interior of the furnace presents a splendid variety of flaming colors of green, blue, purple, and yellow. The mass is boiled for about six hours—the product is sulphate of soda. Each furnace communicates with a huge square stone pillar, having a hollow interior, which forms a condenser. Muriatic gas formed in the furnaces enters these condensers at the bottom. A tank is fitted to the top of each and filled with water. The hollow interior is filled loosely with coke. The water from the tank on the top trickles through the coke, to meet the muriatic gas which enters from below, and the meeting converts the gas into a liquid state and forms muriatic acid. After this the sulphate of soda is taken to other furnaces, (large crucibles they may be called,) each of which is charged with 250 lbs. of lime to a like amount of the sulphate, and about 150 lbs. of charcoal ground into powder. The mass is roasted for about one hour, and then taken out in burning cakes, like lava, and wheeled into great stone caves or receptacles. It is then called “black ash.” Hot water is then suffered to run on this ash, and dissolving it, the liquid product is then run off by pipes to a reservoir, on its way to the coolers, which form merely stages on the path towards more furnaces. In the first it evaporates slowly into a residuum, which resembles a salt, from which it is conveyed into a brick furnace, and from that to two iron furnaces; in the first it remains for 8, and in the second for 1½ hours, before the carbonate of soda is produced.

The carbonate of soda is dissolved in tanks of warm water, and the contents are conveyed by pipes into a furnace, where they are exposed to a heat. During this period it must be raked with iron pokers for two or three hours. It is then drawn into a second furnace and managed in the same way, when it is taken out as a carbonate of soda. It is now dissolved in tanks filled with hot water, where the carbonate is allowed a considerable time to dissolve, and the contents are pumped up into a cistern, where it is again allowed time to consider its position, and deposit a residuum, until the liquor becomes tolerably clear, and is then removed to cast metal coolers, where it is allowed to stand from six to nine hours. From them it is then run off into a large malleable iron pan. This vessel is warmed until the contents are brought up to a heat of 54° on the hydrometer. The pan is then allowed to cool down until the contents are brought back to 90° or thereabouts, and run into flat cast-metal coolers. Very little is done to help the process of crystalizing, which closely resembles freezing, and takes a week to accomplish. The time varies with the season and temperature, and crystals of soda are more rapidly produced in winter than in summer, in cold than in warm weather. Upon the first day a thin filmy crust gathers over the surface of the cooler like the ice of an autumn morning on a stagnant pool. This crust gets daily thicker and stronger, until a considerable pressure is requisite to break the ice; and when broken, after the mass has become nearly solid, the appearance of the crystals, in every imaginable form and shape, hard as ice, clear as water, and sharp as steel at the edges, is extremely beautiful.

The crystals of soda soon become opaque when exposed to the air. Simple soda is dearer than the salts of soda, because about one pound of the ash will make two of the salt. The soda ash, before it reaches the market, is ground down beneath two immense stones.

LAKE SUPERIOR COPPER MINES.

The *Detroit Inquirer* publishes the following extract of a letter received in that city from a party connected with some of the Lake Superior mines:—

I was last week all through the Isle Royale and Portage mines. They have each five shafts sunk, and are looking first-rate. The former is working 80 men, the latter 50. The former is looking pretty on their second level, at a depth of 130 feet. I don't think it looks as well, however, as their 70 feet level, but still there is considerable copper to be seen. They have a good deal of ground broken, and when they commence stamping, will turn copper out pretty handsomely. The Webster have just begun their first shaft; there is not much to be seen, but I think they have a good vein.

The Sheldon Company, which is on the section between the Albion and the Lake, have also just commenced sinking. They have the same veins as the Albion, of course, and consequently must find lots of copper.

The Albion has three shafts under way on the Portage vein, and are about sinking two on the Isle Royale vein, which we have opened by a cross cut, at a place where it is twelve feet wide, composed chiefly of epodote. We expect to shift at least sixty tons next season.

The Montezuma looks well, has two shafts open, which continue to turn out nice stammy work. They intend sinking on the east vein, which bids fair to be some pumpkins. They are working only a small force, and therefore do not make any rapid improvements.

The Lodge Location, section 2, is the great theme here at present. It has both the Isle Royale and Portage veins through it for about five-eighths of a mile. They are making explorations on it at present. Messrs. Shaply and Crawford were out here the other day, and were delighted with all they saw at Portage Lake.

THE SUGAR MANUFACTURE.

The following interesting account of the first attempt to make sugar in Louisiana is from the Report of the United States Patent Office for 1847:—

Judge Rost, in his address before the Mechanical and Agricultural Association of Louisiana, gives an interesting description of the first attempt to make sugar in Louisiana, which shows from how small beginnings the great crop now raised of this article has proceeded. He says:—

"How is it with the sugar-cane in Louisiana? It was introduced here at an early day from the West Indies, and cultivated to a small extent at Terre aux Boeufs and in the neighborhood of New Orleans. Nobody at first imagined that sugar could be made of it. The juice was boiled into sirup, which sold at extravagant prices. In 1796, Mr. Bore, residing a few miles above New Orleans—a man reputed for his daring and his energy—formed the desperate resolve of making sugar. He increased his cultivation, put up the necessary buildings and machinery, and procured a sugar-maker from the West Indies. The day appointed for the experiment was come, and the operation was under way. The inhabitants of New Orleans and the coast had assembled there in great numbers; but they remained outside of the building, at a respectable distance from the sugar-maker, whom they looked upon as a sort of magician. The first strike came, and he said nothing; this they thought fatal, but still they remained fixed to the spot. The second strike was out; the sugar-maker carefully stirred the first, and then, advancing toward the assembled crowd, told them with all the gravity of his craft, 'Gentlemen, it graine.' 'It graine' was repeated by all. They all rushed in to see the wonder; and, when convinced of the facts, scattered in all directions, greeting everybody they met with 'it graine!' And from the Balize to the Dubuque, from the Wabash to the Yellow Stone, the great, the all-absorbing news of the colony was, that the juice of the cane had grained in Lower Louisiana. It did grain; it has continued to grain; it grained the last season at the rate of 215,000,000 pounds; and, if no untoward action of the government prevents it, in ten years it will grain to the extent of more than double the quantity."

ATTIC SILVER MINE AT LAURIUM.

The veins of silver were situated in a range of pine-covered hills of no considerable height, affording quarries of good marble, in contact with which substance the silver was mostly found. These mines were probably opened at a very early period, but the precise date does not appear. The ore, or "silver earth," as the Greeks called it, was extremely hard, and probably very pure and rich in the yield of metal, as the Greeks, from their defective knowledge of chemical processes, could not extract the silver with profit when united with large proportions of other metals. Contrary to common experience, the ore appears to have assumed the form of layers rather than of veins.

The mines were worked either by perpendicular shafts or by tunneling the side of the hill. Pillars of the ore were of course left, or the superincumbent mass was supported by props of timber, which was largely imported for the purpose. The noxious vapors exhaling from the mines were carried off by shafts of ventilation. The ore was removed partly by simple machines, partly by unassisted labor. On reaching the mouth of the mine, they were broken small with iron pestles in stone mortars.

These pieces were then ground down smaller, washed, strained through sieves, and sorted into qualities of different richness.

In the silver ore of Laurium lead was largely present, and, according to Pliny, the ore was first melted down to the substance called "stannum," a union of lead with silver. This was taken to the refining oven, where the silver was separated by heat, and the lead remained half glazed in the form of litharge, which in its turn was reduced. But the ancients were also familiar with the use of quicksilver, in the extraction of other metals, and the moderns have only a claim to re-discovery in this respect. The bellows and charcoal were employed to produce the extreme heat required in refining processes.

Various substances are mentioned as the products of these ancient metallic operations—the flower of gold and copper, the foam of silver, with some others, all of which were used in medicine. In the mines of Laurium copper, cinnibar, and ail, a lightish-yellow earth much used by painters, and containing iron, were also found.

THE USES OF IRON.

ELIZA COOK gives in her *Journal* a racy and spicy sketch of the uses of iron, the modern civilizer, as follows:—

The Age of Gold and the Age of Bronze have given place to the Age of Iron. Iron is your true agent of civilization. So says Mr. Robert Stephenson, at Bangor. In sight of the Menai and Conway tubular bridges, he might feel justified in proclaiming this—though the saying might remind one of the "nothing like leather" maxim. Yet, assuredly, iron is a great power in the present age. It is revolutionizing the world. The iron rail and the iron wire of the telegraph has already brought towns so near to each other, that a country has now become one vast city. And iron railroads are bringing countries nearer to each other, and are binding them into one common interest. We even hear of an iron bond of union between England and Calcutta—a railway stretching across Europe and Asia Minor, rendering the distance in point of time between England and Calcutta only one week! Nor is the proposal a mere chimera; it is a thing that will be realized, and in our day. Fourteen years will probably see the Calais and Calcutta trains running. Iron will form the road, and iron locomotives the fiery horses to bear the iron carriages freighted with their living loads, along the great highway of civilization.

We have yet seen but the beginning of the gigantic power of railways. The next generation may see an extension of the Calais and Calcutta line to Peking, across the center of Asia. The New York and California Railway will then be "a great fact;" for Yankees are not dreamers, but hard, practical, energetic workers; and Asa Whitney's scheme will not remain long upon paper only.

But iron is also working away in other directions. Not to speak of iron bedsteads and iron drawing-room furniture, we have iron steamships, iron tubular bridges, iron viaducts, and iron light-houses. The queen has just ordered an iron ball-room to be constructed by Bellhouse, of Manchester, for her highland country seat at Balmoral. Then, have we not seen the iron and crystal palaces of all nations! There was the iron house, also, built at Manchester, by Fairbairn, for the Sultan of Turkey. We shall have iron cottages and furniture of all kinds soon—iron boats, iron stools, and iron crockery. The uses of the metal are endless, and its supply almost inexhaustible.

INDIA RUBBER OVERSHOES.

Of all the uses to which India Rubber is applied, none is so important and beneficial to the human family as the manufacture of it into overshoes. A few years ago there was a strong prejudice against these shoes; they were called unhealthy, and fit only for enervated men and weak women. Well, even if they were beneficial to no others, if India Rubber shoes had done good to only one individual, this should have blunted the edge of prejudice. But against prejudice they have won their way into sensible and universal favor. It is well known that during rainy weather, but more especially during a thaw, when the ground has been covered with snow, the best leather boots and shoes cannot resist the entrance of moisture. People take cold more readily, we believe, by getting their feet wet and chilled than by any other cause. How many people have we known, who being compelled by circumstances to walk the streets in sloppy weather, have contracted cold from wet feet, and finally consump-

tion. Weakly people have suffered the most from such ills of human life; to them, especially, India Rubber overshoes is one of the greatest blessings of physical discovery. They resist moisture—they are impervious to wet; they keep the feet warm and dry when walking in the wet and cold penetrating snow, and they are, therefore, one of the greatest comforts. There are thousands of these India Rubber overshoes worn now for one pair that were worn fifteen years ago. They tend to prolong life, by keeping the feet warm and dry, thus preventing cold and disease, and at the same time they pour drops of comfort into the cup of life. The great necessities of life, the main essentials to general physical happiness, are plenty of food, warm clothing and dwellings. What would it signify if every man possessed a mountain of gold, if he could not keep his feet warm? A very poor consolation indeed. We are liable to overlook many things which have been done of late years to benefit the human family, and the claims of India Rubber shoes have not been so fully acknowledged as they should be.

RAILROAD, CANAL, AND STEAMBOAT STATISTICS.

DEPARTURE OF OCEAN MAIL STEAMSHIPS.

We give below the appointed days for the departure from Liverpool, Boston and New York, of the Cunard and Collins lines of mail steamers during the remainder of the year 1854:—

FROM LIVERPOOL.				FROM AMERICA.			
Boston....	Satur..	March 4....	Cunard.	Boston....	Weds..	March 1....	Cunard.
New York.	Weds..	" 8....	Collins.	New York.	Satur..	" 4....	Collins.
"	Satur..	" 11....	Cunard.	"	Weds..	" 8....	Cunard.
Boston....	"	" 18....	"	Boston....	"	" 15....	"
New York.	Weds..	" 22....	Collins.	New York.	Satur..	" 18....	Collins.
"	Satur..	" 25....	Cunard.	"	Weds..	" 22....	Cunard.
Boston....	"	April 1....	"	Boston....	"	" 29....	"
New York.	Weds..	" 5....	Collins.	New York.	Satur..	April 1....	Collins.
"	Satur..	" 8....	Cunard.	"	Weds..	" 5....	Cunard.
Boston....	"	" 15....	"	Boston....	"	" 12 ..	"
New York.	Weds..	" 19....	Collins.	New York.	Satur..	" 15....	Collins.
"	Satur..	" 22....	Cunard.	"	Weds..	" 19....	Cunard.
Boston....	"	" 29....	"	Boston....	"	" 26....	"
New York.	Weds..	May 3....	Collins.	New York.	Satur..	" 29....	Collins.
"	Satur..	" 6....	Cunard.	"	Weds..	May 8....	Cunard.
Boston....	"	" 13....	"	Boston....	"	" 10....	"
New York.	Weds..	" 17	Collins.	New York.	Satur..	" 13....	Collins.
"	Satur..	" 20....	Cunard.	"	Weds..	" 17....	Cunard.
Boston....	"	" 27....	"	Boston....	"	" 24....	"
New York.	Weds..	" 31....	Collins.	New York.	Satur..	" 27....	Collins.
"	Satur..	June 3....	Cunard.	"	Weds..	" 31....	Cunard.
Boston....	"	" 10....	"	Boston....	"	June 7....	"
New York.	Weds..	" 14....	Collins.	New York.	Satur..	" 10....	Collins.
"	Satur..	" 17....	Cunard.	"	Weds..	" 14....	Cunard.
Boston....	"	" 24....	"	Boston....	"	" 21....	"
New York.	Weds..	" 28....	Collins.	New York.	Satur..	" 24....	Collins.
"	Satur..	July 1....	Cunard.	"	Weds..	" 28....	Cunard.
Boston....	"	" 8....	"	Boston....	"	July 5....	"
New York.	Weds..	" 12....	Collins.	New York.	Satur..	" 8....	Collins.
"	Satur..	" 15....	Cunard.	"	Weds..	" 12....	Cunard.
Boston....	"	" 22....	"	Boston....	"	" 19....	"
New York.	Weds..	" 26....	Collins.	New York.	Satur..	" 22....	Collins.
"	Satur..	" 29....	Cunard.	"	Weds..	" 26....	Cunard.
Boston....	"	August 5....	"	Boston....	"	August 2....	"
New York.	Weds..	" 9....	Collins.	New York.	Satur..	" 5....	Collins.
"	Satur..	" 12....	Cunard.	"	Weds..	" 9....	Cunard.

FROM LIVERPOOL.				FROM AMERICA.			
Boston.	Satur.	Aug. 19.	Cunard.	Boston.	Weds.	Aug. 16.	Cunard.
New York.	Weds.	" 23.	Collins.	New York.	Satur.	" 19.	Collins.
"	Satur.	" 26.	Cunard.	"	Weds.	" 23.	Cunard.
Boston.	"	Sept. 2.	"	Boston.	"	" 30.	"
New York.	Weds.	" 6.	Collins.	New York.	Satur.	Sept. 2.	Collins.
"	Satur.	" 9.	Cunard.	"	Weds.	" 6.	Cunard.
Boston.	"	" 16.	"	Boston.	"	" 13.	"
New York.	Weds.	" 20.	Collins.	New York.	Satur.	" 16.	Collins.
"	Satur.	" 23.	Cunard.	"	Weds.	" 20.	Cunard.
Boston.	"	" 30.	"	Boston.	"	" 27.	"
New York.	Weds.	October 4.	Collins.	New York.	Satur.	" 30.	Collins.
"	Satur.	" 7.	Cunard.	"	Weds.	October 4.	Cunard.
Boston.	"	" 14.	"	Boston.	"	" 11.	"
New York.	Weds.	" 18.	Collins.	New York.	Satur.	" 14.	Collins.
"	Satur.	" 21.	Cunard.	"	Weds.	" 18.	Cunard.
Boston.	"	" 28.	"	Boston.	"	" 25.	"
New York.	Weds.	Nov. 1.	Collins.	New York.	Satur.	" 28.	Collins.
"	Satur.	" 4.	Cunard.	"	Weds.	Nov. 1.	Cunard.
Boston.	"	" 11.	"	Boston.	"	" 8.	"
New York.	Weds.	" 15.	Collins.	New York.	Satur.	" 11.	Collins.
"	Satur.	" 18.	Cunard.	"	Weds.	" 15.	Cunard.
Boston.	"	" 25.	"	Boston.	"	" 22.	"
New York.	Weds.	" 29.	Collins.	New York.	Satur.	" 25.	Collins.
"	Satur.	Dec. 2.	Cunard.	"	Weds.	" 29.	Cunard.
Boston.	"	" 9.	"	Boston.	"	Dec. 6.	"
New York.	Weds.	" 13.	Collins.	New York.	Satur.	" 9.	Collins.
"	Satur.	" 16.	Cunard.	"	Weds.	" 13.	Cunard.
Boston.	"	" 23.	"	Boston.	"	" 20.	"
New York.	Weds.	" 27.	Collins.	New York.	Satur.	" 23.	Collins.
"	Satur.	" 30.	Cunard.	"	Weds.	" 27.	Cunard.

COMMERCE OF THE NEW YORK CANALS IN 1852 AND 1853.

The subjoined statement, showing the total quantity and value of each article which came to the Hudson River in the years 1852 and 1853, is compiled from official documents:—

THE FOREST.

	1852.		1853.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
Fur and peltry lbs.	264,652	\$844,048	188,200	\$229,000
<i>Product of Wood.</i>				
Boards and scantling. ft.	542,428,787	9,898,861	667,959,700	10,687,355
Shingles M.	62,285	217,999	88,650	139,527
Timber cubic feet	4,003,913	681,376	5,236,916	890,276
Staves lbs.	145,503,656	688,790	158,387,400	760,260
Wood cords	17,446	87,283	10,578	50,246
Ashes, pot and pearl. bbls.	37,220	1,079,851	31,808	869,631

AGRICULTURE.

<i>Product of Animals.</i>				
Pork bbls.	72,704	1,267,292	105,037	1,496,777
Beef	89,215	1,034,113	95,737	760,182
Bacon lbs.	9,754,790	916,950	19,958,400	1,795,806
Cheese	16,367,404	1,310,351	10,090,200	882,893
Butter	7,902,715	1,468,532	5,170,000	827,200
Lard oil galls.				
Wool lbs.	7,645,302	3,210,899	5,998,700	2,759,403
Hides	768,511	105,297	940,500	117,563
Lard, tallow, and lard oil. . . lbs.	10,672,731	1,173,712	11,557,600	1,213,548

Vegetable Food.

<i>Vegetable Food.</i>	1852.		1853.		
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	
Flour	bbls.	3,464,108	\$15,685,965	8,080,899	\$17,776,787
Wheat.....	bush.	6,754,946	6,878,291	9,486,807	12,362,217
Rye		279,314	253,451	173,438	153,493
Corn.....		5,411,648	3,626,535	3,200,326	2,272,231
Corn meal	bbls.	14,174	39,688	2,286	6,447
Barley.....	bush.	2,280,485	1,664,754	2,582,106	2,078,595
Oats		4,857,487	2,136,290	4,047,247	1,821,261
Bran and ship stuffs.....	lbs.	59,727,165	542,644	40,148,500	821,148
Peas and beans.....	bush.	122,489	149,996	74,654	67,189
Potatoes.....		779,871	441,300	490,075	274,946
Dried fruit	lbs.	190,504	15,241	665,700	52,456

All other Agriculturals.

Cotton	lbs.	148,618	16,254	469,400	58,981
Unmanufactured tobacco.....		12,216,228	2,687,570	4,685,900	1,077,757
Hemp		1,403,122	91,208	963,500	62,628
Clover and grass seed.....		2,150,075	161,275	1,217,200	85,204
Flax seed		2,125,809	42,517	582,500	10,650
Hops		417,181	124,769	16,700	6,012

MANUFACTURES.

Domestic spirits.....	galls.	4,617,658	1,040,855	3,822,408	860,266
Beer	bbls.				
Oil meal and cake.....	lbs.	9,256,769	120,264	16,925,400	211,568
Starch.....					
Leather		6,877,815	1,100,644	7,307,100	1,096,065
Furniture		1,263,466	126,346	474,400	49,812
Bar and pig lead		11,255	563	171,700	9,444
Pig iron		5,213,614	54,836	8,769,200	87,692
Castings and iron ware.....		8,056,428	108,887	2,836,800	99,288
Bloom and bar iron.....		14,384,547	253,477	19,603,100	392,062
Domestic woolens		187,653	178,270	150,700	135,630
Domestic cottons		1,342,122	848,951	1,047,700	272,402
Domestic salt		9,265,929	41,697	8,601,900	37,848
Foreign salt.....		3,000	14	884,300	8,979
Other merchandise.....		21,213,199	3,749,824	29,109,200	5,549,123

OTHER ARTICLES.

Live cattle, hogs, sheep.....		150,119	4,504	229,500	6,885
Stone, lime, and clay.....	lbs.	113,497,567	156,569	168,152,800	252,229
Gypsum.....		11,270,138	22,641	8,409,500	17,660
Mineral coal		14,820,600	36,052	50,724,100	126,810
Copper ore		54,697	8,204	2,378,000	368,590
Sundries		105,727,204	2,060,557	145,158,500	2,903,070

RECAPITULATION.

ESTIMATED VALUE OF ALL THE PROPERTY WHICH CAME TO THE HUDSON RIVER IN EACH OF THE YEARS ABOVE NAMED:—

	1852.	1853.
Forest.....	\$12,487,658	\$13,626,295
Agriculture	45,009,889	48,336,343
Manufactures	3,856,304	3,256,056
Merchandise.....	3,748,824	5,549,128
Other articles	2,299,427	8,675,244
Total value....	\$66,893,102	\$74,443,061

ILLINOIS CENTRAL RAILROAD.

This road, of 731 miles of track, is to be completed in all this year. The finished and unfinished portions are detailed in the annexed table:—

Counties traversed.	Miles track.	Mls. laid.	Mls. grad'g finished.	When completed, or to be completed.	
Alexander	21.13	5	5	1853	December 10.
Christian	19.25	16	1854	June 1.
Champaign	43.37	32	1854	July 15.
Clay	1.75	1	1855	March 1.
Cook	31.77	31.77	31.77	1853	July 11.
Coles	30.76	25.76	1855	March 1.
Cumberland	7.38	6	1855	March 1.
De Witt	16.76	14.50	1854	June 1.
Effingham	25.10	16	1855	March 1.
Fayette	28.26	13	1854	October 15.
Iroquois	36.64	33	35	1853	December 19.
Jackson	25.51	14	23	1854	February 1.
Jo Davies	50.66	20	1854	September.
Kankakee	23.26	23.26	23.26	1853	July 11.
La Salle	32.51	16	26.50	1853	November 14.
Lee	29.89	18	1854	September.
Macon	28.89	25	1854	June 1.
Marion	50.52	38	1854	August 1.
Marshall	5.13	5.13	5.13	1853	May 16.
McLean	26.88	26.88	26.88	1853	May 16.
Ogle	23.76	15	1854	September.
Putnam	12.63	12.63	12.63	1853	May 16.
Pulaski	12.75	12.75	12.75	1853	December 10.
Perry	19.01	17	1854	August 1.
Shelby	17.51	14	1854	June 1.
Stephenson	27.64	25	27.64	1854	January 9.
Washington	20.88	18.50	1854	August 1.
Will	12.88	10.88	10.88	1853	July 11.
Woodford	19.14	19.14	19.14	1853	May 16.
Union	22.13	10	20	1853	December 15.
Vermillion	6.40	6	1854	April 1.
Total	731.05	245.44	576.34		

TERRE-HAUTE AND RICHMOND RAILROAD.

This road extends from Terre-Haute to Indianapolis, and is seventy-three miles in length. According to the fifth annual report, the income of the company for the last fiscal year, ending December 31, 1853, is as follows:—

From passengers	\$109,130 96
From freight	58,244 70
From mails and expresses	10,600 31
Total receipts	177,975 97
Net earnings, 1853	\$111,644 60
Net earnings, 1852	71,466 05
Increase	40,178 55
Number of through passengers	32,155
Number of way passengers	56,666
Total number of passengers	88,821
Number of miles run by passenger trains	50,306
“ “ freight trains	47,020
“ “ gravel and ditching trains	32,139
Total number of miles run	129,465

PHILADELPHIA AND READING RAILWAY.

The annual report of the President, John Tucker, Esq., of the operations of this road for the year 1853, shows a degree of prosperity that reflects very favorably with regard to the management. We give an abstract of the main facts. The old Board of Directors were re-elected. The earnings for the year were from the following sources:—

Earnings from passengers.....	\$225,763	33
“ merchandise carried.....	180,611	80
“ coal carried, at \$1 42½ per ton.....	2,254,694	17
“ mail, &c.....	27,218	29
Total earnings.....	\$2,688,287	59
Deduct working expenses.....	\$1,056,551	58
“ drawbacks, &c.....	165,985	99
“ interest and renewal.....	678,888	23
	<hr/>	<hr/>
	1,901,425	75
Leaving for dividend fund.....	\$786,161	84
Add balance dividend fund for 1852.....	2,115	66
	<hr/>	<hr/>
Total dividend fund.....	\$788,977	50

Which has been disposed of as follows:—

Dividend on preferred stock, July 1853, and Jan. 1854..	\$108,626	00
Dividend on common stock, July, 1853.....	172,984	83
Paid State tax on dividends, Dec., 1822, and July, 1853.	23,283	71
Paid sinking funds for bonds, 1836 and 1860.....	25,000	00
Paid sinking funds for bonds, 1849 and 1870.....	75,000	00
Paid for balance at the Dr. of interest account.....	101,400	29
	<hr/>	<hr/>
	\$506,244	83
Leaving for balance of dividend fund for 1853.....	\$233,732	67

We learn that a dividend of 3½ per cent has since been declared upon the common stock, for January, 1854, which makes seven per cent for the year, on all the stock, and leaving a surplus of dividend fund on hand of \$62,152 89. The sinking funds give a fund for distribution in common stock of 1½ per cent on both stocks, in addition to the cash dividends, and leaves a surplus of \$1,075 29 for the preferred, and \$43,094 97 for the common stock, for future division. The gross receipts for 1853 exceed those of 1852, by \$207,661 18.

Those from coal being in excess.....	\$104,017	00
“ passengers “.....	57,333	04
“ merchandise, “.....	41,648	19
“ United States Mail, &c.....	4,662	92
	<hr/>	<hr/>
	\$207,661	18

The expenses in each department are less than in 1852, giving increased net profits of \$218,762 78.

THE WORCESTER AND NASHUA RAILROAD.

Among the many interior short lines of railroad in Massachusetts, this is now becoming a favorite investment. The line is built from Worcester, Massachusetts, through a succession of thriving villages and towns, to Nashua, N. H. The line of steamers, the Connecticut and Worcester, via New London and Allen's Point, via the Norwich and Worcester Railroad, connects at Worcester daily with this road, and freight and

passengers by that line are carried to Lowell, Nashua, Concord, Bellows' Falls, &c. The termini are among the most stirring and successful of our inland manufacturing cities, and the local traffic is of the most substantial and valuable character. This road likewise receives the benefit of a large through business from the North to the South. At a late meeting of the company the following exhibit of the business of the road was made for the year ending 30th November, 1853:—

Total expenditures for the year ending November 30, 1853.....	\$182,398 37
Expenditures.....	\$90,592 07
Interest	9,998 32
	<hr/>
	100,590 39
Net income after payment of interest.	<hr/>
	\$81,807 98
Dividend, \$2 25, in July, 1853	\$34,195 50
Dividend, \$2 25, January, 1854.....	44,844 00
	<hr/>
	\$76,039 50
Surplus	<hr/>
	\$5,768 48
Increase of earnings over 1852	<hr/>
	\$20,289 17

It appears that the amount of capital actually paid in is about \$67 per share, thus showing that the dividends for the current year are but a fraction less than $7\frac{1}{4}$ per cent on the actual capital. The whole number of shares in the hands of stockholders is 15,236, of which 15,216 are preferred and entitled to dividends, leaving only 20 shares unpreferred. The company held 2,878 shares of its stock, 2,500 of which were purchased of the Norwich and Worcester Railroad Company and are paid for. The balance was purchased by the corporation for non-payment of assessments.

VERMONT AND MASSACHUSETTS RAILROAD.

This railroad extends from Fitchburg to Greenfield, a distance of fifty-six miles. It has a branch road, which at Grant's Corner, forty-eight miles from Fitchburg, extends to Brattleborough, sixty-nine miles from the former place. It seems, from the annual report of the directors presented to the stockholders, at the annual meeting in Boston, on the 8th of February, 1844, that there has been a constant increase of business on this road ever since it was opened in 1848, as will be seen by the following table. The earnings were, in 1849, \$145,147 69; in 1850, \$177,694 68; in 1851, \$195,923 54; in 1852, \$220,906 70; in 1853, \$248,854 99.

Gain in 1850 over 1849.....	\$32,576 99
" 1851 " 1850.....	19,228 86
" 1852 " 1851.....	24,982 16
" 1853 " 1852.....	27,948 29
Earnings in 1853.....	\$248,854 99
Running expenses proper.	133,592 45

Leaving a balance in favor of the road of.....\$115,262 54

Out of this balance the road pays about \$68,000 interest on its mortgage bonds and debts.

The extra expenses of the past year for new freight cars, &c., &c., were about \$27,000.

The total indebtedness of the Vermont and Massachusetts Company is as follows:

Total amount of bonds issued.....	\$959,000 00
Notes payable.....	175,792 68
Sundry small accounts.....	421 47
	<hr/>
	\$1,135,214 15

EARNINGS OF THE ERIE RAILROAD.

The following is a comparative statement of the earnings of the Erie Railroad for the years 1852 and 1853:—

	1852.	1853.		1852.	1853.
January.....	\$171,400	\$263,398	July.....	\$301,800	\$318,182
February.....	201,800	287,011	August.....	313,600	410,671
March.....	251,100	363,837	September.....	375,100	516,019
April.....	320,895	412,288	October.....	376,888	552,995
May.....	369,285	350,142	November.....	348,162	503,327
June.....	312,300	336,018	December.....	352,188	415,403
Total.....				\$3,693,919	\$4,729,290
Increase.....					1,035,301

EARNINGS OF THE BALTIMORE AND OHIO RAILROAD.

The following statement will show the earnings of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad by month; for the year ending Dec. 31st, 1853:—

1853.	Main stem.	Wash'ton Br.	1853.	Main stem.	Wash'ton Br.
January....	\$101,819 49	\$27,529 10	July.....	\$164,140 42	\$27,170 85
February..	99,017 27	29,847 85	August..	217,011 39	29,197 77
March....	216,267 37	54,153 02	September.	239,300 41	31,729 03
April.....	200,219 59	32,527 47	October...	257,876 96	32,291 28
May.....	204,950 01	32,318 66	November	296,273 53	27,768 25
June.....	189,967 51	30,642 84	December..	294,066 76	28,097 61
Total, 1853				\$2,480,910 71	\$383,272 59
Total, 1852				1,511,732 52	366,697 62
Increase.....				958,178 49	26,575 97

MOBILE AND OHIO RAILROAD.

From an estimate made by Capt. John Childe, Chief Engineer of this road, in a letter to Joshua Richardson, of the Tennessee Legislature, we gather the following items of cost per mile of the Mobile and Ohio Railroad, equipped ready for running. Taking actual contracts as the basis of prices:—

108 tons of rail per mile, at \$73 per ton, divided on the road	\$7,884 00
Six tons of joint-pieces and bolts, at \$90 per ton.....	540 00
Laying track & switches, including spikes, castings, and forging therefor	700 00
Buildings, turn-tables, water and water fixtures.....	700 00
One engine for 6 miles of road, at \$9,500.....	1,583 00
One passenger car to each 10 miles of road, at \$2,200.....	220 00
Three freight cars to each 10 miles of road, at \$660, 2-3.....	995 00
One gravel car to 4 miles	75 00
Total.....	\$12,697 00

CAMDEN AND AMBOY RAILROAD AND CANAL COMPANY.

The report of the State Directors of the Camden and Amboy Railroad and the Delaware and Raritan Canal Companies, gives the gross receipts of the road for the year at \$1,744,207 02, and the expenditures at \$1,145,473 22, leaving for net earnings \$598,733 88. The gross receipts of the Canal Co. for the year are \$382,243 33, the expenditures for the same time \$154,754 90—excess, \$227,493 84; making \$826,227 92 excess by both companies. The whole amount of revenue to the State from the joint companies is \$150,545 04½; \$63,621 28½ from the railroad; \$35,088 76 from the canal; and \$51,835 for regular and extra dividends on stock owned by the State, and interest on the bonds of the Companies. The increase of way freight on the railroad during the last year is 26,118½ tons over that of last year.

ANNUAL REPORT OF THE SOUTH CAROLINA RAILROAD.

According to the report, the income for the year from passage, freight, mails, &c., was \$1,215,279 20, and the expenses of the management, ordinary and extraordinary (the ordinary equal to 43 per cent.) \$555,536 88. Leaving a balance of \$643,742 33. Out of which have been provided interest on foreign and domestic debt, and for claims for damages, &c., \$199,773 72. And the remainder, \$463,768 61, has afforded two dividends of 4 per cent each, amounting to \$311,376, and transferred a balance of \$152,592 61 to the credit of surplus income for the year. Mr. Caldwell, the President of the company, says the road will require extensive improvements during the present year. The injuries done to the Columbia branch, near the Congaree, by the freshets of 1852, have not yet been fully repaired.

STATISTICS OF POPULATION, &c.

CENSUS OF THE UNITED STATES IN 1850.

POPULATION, SQUARE MILES, DENSITY, &C., OF THE UNITED STATES IN 1850.

States & Territories.	Whites.	Free Colored.	Slaves.	Total.	Sq. Miles.	Inhabitants to Sq. Mile.
Alabama.....	426,514	2,265	342,844	771,623	50,722	15.21
Arkansas.....	162,189	608	47,100	209,897	52,198	4.02
California.....	91,835	962	92,597	188,982	0.49
Carolina, N....	558,028	27,463	288,548	869,039	45,500	19.1
Carolina, S....	274,563	8,960	884,984	668,507	28,000	23.87
Columbia, D. of	37,941	10,059	8,687	51,687	50	1,033.74
Connecticut...	363,099	7,693	370,792	4,750	78.06
Delaware.....	71,169	18,073	2,290	91,532	2,120	43.17
Florida.....	47,203	932	39,310	87,445	59,268	1.48
Georgia.....	521,572	2,931	381,682	906,185	58,000	15.62
Illinois.....	846,034	5,436	851,470	55,409	15.37
Indiana.....	977,154	11,262	988,416	33,809	29.24
Indian Ter....	187,171
Iowa.....	191,881	333	192,214	50,914	3.77
Kentucky.....	761,413	10,011	210,981	982,405	37,680	26.07
Louisiana.....	255,491	17,462	244,809	517,762	41,346	12.52
Maine.....	581,813	1,356	583,169	35,000	16.66
Maryland.....	417,943	74,723	90,368	583,034	11,000	53.00
Massachusetts..	985,450	9,064	994,514	7,250	137.17
Michigan.....	395,071	2,583	397,654	56,243	7.07
Minnesota Ter.	6,038	39	6,077	141,839	0.04
Mississippi....	295,718	930	309,878	606,526	47,151	12.86
Missouri.....	592,004	2,618	87,422	682,044	65,037	10.49
Nebraska Ter..	136,700
N. Hampshire..	317,456	520	317,976	8,030	39.6
New Mexico T..	61,525	22	61,547	210,774	0.29
New York...	3,048,325	49,069	3,097,394	46,000	67.33
New Jersey...	465,509	23,810	236	489,555	6,851	71.46
Northwest Ter.	528,725
Ohio.....	1,955,050	25,279	1,980,329	39,964	49.55
Oregon Ter....	13,087	207	13,294	341,463	0.04
Pennsylvania..	2,258,160	53,626	2,311,786	47,000	49.19
Rhode Island..	143,875	3,670	147,545	1,200	122.95
Tennessee.....	756,836	6,422	289,459	1,002,717	44,000	22.79
Texas.....	154,034	397	58,161	212,592	325,520	0.65
Utah Territory	11,330	24	26	11,380	187,923	0.06
Virginia.....	894,800	54,333	472,528	1,421,661	61,352	23.17
Vermont.....	313,402	718	314,120	8,000	39.26
Wisconsin.....	304,756	635	305,391	53,924	5.66
Total.....	19,558,068	484,495	3,204,313	23,191,876	3,306,865	7.01

ALABAMA. Formed out of territory ceded to United States by South Carolina and Georgia. Admitted into the Union December 14, 1819.

ARKANSAS. Formed from territory ceded to United States by France. Admitted into the Union June 15, 1836.

CALIFORNIA. Formed of territory ceded by Mexico. Admitted into the Union September 9, 1850.

CAROLINA, NORTH. One of the thirteen original States. Ratified the Constitution of the United States November 21, 1789.

CAROLINA, SOUTH. One of the thirteen original States. Ratified the Constitution of the United States May 23, 1788.

COLUMBIA, DISTRICT OF. Formed from territory ceded by Maryland and Virginia. Established as seat of government July 16, 1790. Alexandria retroceded July, 1846.

CONNECTICUT. One of the thirteen original States. Ratified the Constitution of the United States January 9, 1788.

DELAWARE. One of the thirteen original States. Ratified the Constitution of the United States December 7, 1787.

FLORIDA. Formed from territory ceded to United States by Spain. Admitted into the Union March 3, 1845.

GEORGIA. One of the thirteen original States. Ratified the Constitution of the United States January 2, 1788.

ILLINOIS. Formed out of territory ceded to United States by Virginia. Admitted into the Union December 3, 1818.

INDIANA. Formed from territory ceded to United States by Virginia. Admitted into the Union December 11, 1816.

IOWA. Formed from part of the territory of Wisconsin. Admitted into the Union December 28, 1846.

KENTUCKY. Formed from the territory of Virginia. Admitted into the Union June 1, 1792.

LOUISIANA. Formed from territory ceded to United States by France. Admitted into the Union April 8, 1812.

MAINE. Formed out of part of the territory of Massachusetts. Admitted into the Union March 15, 1820.

MARYLAND. One of the thirteen original States. Ratified the Constitution of the United States April 28, 1788.

MASSACHUSETTS. One of the thirteen original States. Ratified the Constitution of the United States February 6, 1788.

MICHIGAN. Formed from territory ceded to United States by Virginia. Admitted into the Union January 26, 1837.

MINNESOTA TERRITORY. Territorial government established March 3, 1849.

MISSISSIPPI. Formed from territory ceded to United States by South Carolina. Admitted into the Union December 10, 1817.

MISSOURI. Formed from territory ceded to United States by France. Admitted into the Union August 10, 1821.

NEW HAMPSHIRE. One of the thirteen original States. Ratified the Constitution of the United States June 21, 1788.

NEW MEXICO TERRITORY. Formed from territory ceded by Mexico and Texas. Territorial government established September 9, 1850.

NEW YORK. One of the thirteen original States. Ratified the Constitution of the United States July 26, 1788.

NEW JERSEY. One of the thirteen original States. Ratified the Constitution of the United States December 18, 1787.

OHIO. Formed out of territory ceded to United States by Virginia. Admitted into the Union November 29, 1802.

OREGON TERRITORY. Territorial government established August 14, 1848.

PENNSYLVANIA. One of the thirteen original States. Ratified the Constitution of the United States December 12, 1787.

RHODE ISLAND. One of the thirteen original States. Ratified the Constitution of the United States May 29, 1790.

TENNESSEE. Formed of territory ceded to United States by North Carolina. Admitted into the Union June 1, 1796.

TEXAS. Independent republic. Admitted into the Union December 29, 1845.

UTAH TERRITORY. Territorial government established September 9, 1850.

VIRGINIA. One of the thirteen original States. Ratified the Constitution of the United States June 26, 1788.

VERMONT. Formed from part of the territory of New York. Admitted into the Union March 4, 1791.

WISCONSIN. Formed from part of the territory of Michigan. Admitted into the Union May 29, 1848.

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

THE NEW YORK COTTON MARKET

FOR THE MONTH ENDING FEBRUARY 13.

PREPARED FOR THE MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE BY UHLHORN & FREDERICKSON, BROKERS,
148 PEARL STREET, NEW YORK.

The market for the first week of the month under review opened with a fair demand from shippers, spinners, and speculators—the latter taking nearly one-sixth of the week's operations. Of the sales of the week a large portion consisted of cottons sold *in transitu* to foreign ports and to arrive here. In such sales a decline is more readily submitted to than for the same grade of cotton from store, and for purposes of re-shipment, or for forwarding into the interior, and sometimes it is an object to effect such sales, as it gives the purchaser a chance of a re-sale, and to the shipper the choice of the freight market. The foreign advices received this week were favorably construed, and holders of cotton were firm in asking full rates. At the close of the week January 23, there was less doing, but the quotations annexed were fully maintained, with sales of 13,732 bales, viz:—

Export.....bales	5,467	Speculationbales	2,133
Home use.....	5,062	In transitu	1,070

The subjoined were the prices adopted by the New York Cotton Brokers' Association for the following qualities:—

	Upland.	Florida.	Moblie.	N. O. & Texas.
Ordinary	7 $\frac{7}{8}$	7 $\frac{7}{8}$	8	8 $\frac{1}{2}$
Middling.....	9 $\frac{1}{4}$	10	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	10 $\frac{3}{4}$
Middling fair	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	10 $\frac{3}{4}$	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	11 $\frac{1}{2}$
Fair	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	12 $\frac{1}{2}$

With an increased stock and duller accounts from Liverpool, our market for the week ending January 30th, was extremely irregular, and prices generally were $\frac{1}{4}$ a $\frac{1}{2}$ c. per lb. lower than those of the preceding week. There was less disposition to operate, notwithstanding the increased offerings and a deficit in total receipts of over 600,000 bales, as compared with last year.

The apprehension of a general European war is the only feature that presents a more general inquiry for, and increased confidence in the staple. An advance in breadstuffs and the rates of interest of fully one hundred per cent, together with turn-outs in the manufacturing districts of more than 60,000 operatives, have failed to prejudice materially the price of cotton. Here, our own spinners are most lucratively employed, and every spindle that can *wabble* is set in motion. Looms of the antique pattern, which have long since been discarded, are now making their two inches of printing cloths per minute. The influence of our own spinners in the cotton market is felt daily, and the amount taking by them is rapidly increasing. The week's operations summed up 8,482 bales, at about the following quotations:—

Export.....bales	3,940	Speculationbales	991
Home use.....	3,326	In transitu.....	225

Prices adopted by the Board of Brokers for the following qualities:—

	Upland.	Florida.	Mobile.	N. O. & Texas.
Ordinary	7½	7½	8	8½
Middling	9½	10	10½	10½
Middling fair	10½	10½	11½	11½
Fair	11½	11½	11½	12½

For the week ending February 6th, the sales were the largest reported since the formation of the New York Cotton Brokers' Association. There was also more steadiness to prices, and the decline of the previous week recovered. The business was chiefly for export to Liverpool and the continent. Speculators took to the extent of 2,078 bales; holders were not free sellers unless at extreme rates. The accounts per the Asia being of a more satisfactory character, caused a steady maintenance of prices throughout the week, the market closing firm at the following quotations, with sales for the week of 16,175 bales, viz:—

Export.....bales	8,460	Speculation.....bales	2,078
Home use.....	3,082	In transitu.....	2,560

Quotations for the following qualities:—

	Upland.	Florida.	Mobile.	N. O. & Texas.
Ordinary.....	8	8½	8½	8½
Middling	10	10½	10½	10½
Middling fair	10½	11	11½	11½
Fair.....	11½	11½	11½	12½

The last week of the month under review, and ending February 13th, was one of "masterly inactivity;" the sales were small, and prices declined fully ¼c. per lb. on nearly all grades. Even this reduction offered no inducements to buyers, and forced sales were even made at a still greater decline. The uncertainty of the line of policy which the Emperor of Russia will adopt, and the general belief that war is inevitable, have caused an almost entire cessation of operations in our market; nor will there be much done until a decision in the matter is arrived at. The present state of uncertainty is much more harassing to business than a formal declaration of war would be. A favorable turn to affairs between Russia and Turkey would advance prices here materially. Holders were willing to await later advices before making further reductions; and the market for the week closed heavy at the following rates—sales for the week 4,490 bales, viz:—

Export.....bales	1,296	Speculation.....bales	508
Home use.....	2,325	In transitu.....	366

Below are the prices adopted by the Board for the following qualities:—

	Upland.	Florida.	Mobile.	N. O. & Texas.
Ordinary	7½	7½	7½	8
Middling	9½	9½	9½	10½
Middling fair	10½	10½	11	11½
Fair	11	11	11½	12½

But little remains to be said in regard to the extent of the incoming crop. Should the peace of Europe be disturbed for any length of time, the receipts at the ports would, of course, be limited; and the total up to the 1st of September next may not exceed 2,800,000 bales. On the other hand, present prices, with navigable streams, and foreign consumption not materially interfered with, would undoubtedly increase the receipts from 100,000 to 200,000 bales.

THE MERCANTILE CHARACTER.

DANIEL N. HASKELL, Esq., the clever editor of the *Boston Transcript*, and a gentleman who has had some experience in commercial life, thus defends the character of that influential class of men—the merchants:—

As a class, we think the merchants of our country rarely have justice awarded to them by writers and speakers. If a preacher wishes to depict any evil practice in the community, he most generally selects the mercantile profession to illustrate his theory. How rarely are farmers or mechanics alluded to by either writers or speakers, when some debasing passion or pernicious example is mentioned? That merchants, as a body, are not saints, is quite evident; but that they should always be marked out, as in the cases above alluded to, does not seem honest or fair. Doubtless, in most cases the offensive figure of speech is used without any intentional injustice. Surely no one will deny that, as a class, persons engaged in commercial pursuits are liable to certain temptations, and have their peculiar dangers. But are other classes in society free from all bad qualities, and exempt from the infirmities incident to our race? We believe that even a partial examination will show that farmers and mechanics generally have certain points of character not worthy of particular commendation. We have known merchants to be in business upward of a half century, who have never had a lawsuit, though their operations extended to all quarters of the globe, and those with whom they had made bargains and contracts might be counted by thousands. How few farmers live even half a score of years without having a lawsuit as regularly as they plow their fields—and in how many agricultural districts does the lawyer occupy the best house and count as the largest tax-payer?

It is a common expression to apply to a business man, that his "word is as good as his bond;" but in how few instances do mechanics keep their word, and promptly deliver their work at the time it has been promised? We have yet to learn that the "almighty dollar" does not exert as potent an influence outside of the mercantile community as it is said to have within business circles. Every person of intelligence must, we think, acknowledge that Commerce is one of the most honorable of employments, as it is one of the great sources of national wealth and power. The records of the human race bear ample and constant evidence of the connection that has for ages existed between Commerce and intellectual improvement. As a class, too, the merchants of our country are the best informed persons in it. It is time, we think, that this constant tirade against merchants should cease. We verily believe that most clergymen could find matters worthy of imitation, in the daily walks of those of their congregations engaged in mercantile pursuits. We also believe that were two addresses made to the merchants of our city, one based upon the idea that our business men were daily and hourly doing wrong, and the other giving them credit for doing right, always and at all times—though both of these sayings would be far from the truth, we think the latter would be nearer the fact than the former. And we venture to affirm that if the scriptural test were applied to the mercantile class in our own day, as it was of old to an individual case, and the class that was without sin was to make the first assault upon the mercantile community, it would be a long while before the first attack was made; and we are quite sure the parties usually so prompt to decry the merchants would find their occupation gone by the establishment of such a test.

INSURANCE BROKERAGE.

We are requested to supply an omission in the list of foreign insurance offices in New York, which is that of the Metropolitan, of Boston, for which James A. Requa, Esq., is the agent, Merchants' Exchange. Capital, \$200,000.

In connection with insurance, we would mention the name of Mr. Samuel Waite as insurance broker. Mr. Waite may be remembered by many of our first-class houses, as agent for *Hunt's Merchants' Magazine* for the last six years. And for the simple reason that we are willing always to lend our aid to subserve and promote the public interest by the promotion of the individual who deserves it, we say of him that our business relations with him have been such as to entitle him to this favorable public notice and commendation to our readers and the public, and we bespeak for him the share of public patronage that he merits. He has shown us the titles of several of the insurance companies that he solicits for (it may be proper to say here that his place is at 26 Merchants' Exchange, Hanover-st.,) both New York and Boston companies, the names of the directors of which are a passport to the public confidence in the institu-

tions; and it is by personal application to those to whom insurance is among their very first requirements, (to solicit of those, as he has heretofore done for subscription to *Hunt's Merchants' Magazine*), through his agency to supply to them this indispensable requirement. We are told very much of the insurance in London is done through the agency of the insurance broker.—*United States Economist*.

OF THE REMOVAL OF COMMERCE FROM BOSTON TO NEW YORK.

The following remarks occur in a speech of the Hon. THOMAS G. CARY, made in the Senate of Massachusetts, May 18th, 1853:—

We are told that our great commercial houses are going to New York. What is there in all that? Stated with precision, it is, not that our great houses are leaving us, but that they find it convenient to establish branches. It is the consequence of our exuberant growth. Massachusetts makes more than she wants. When there is competition among the buyers to get the goods, they come here fast enough. When we have more goods than we can readily sell, and become ourselves competitors on the other hand, we employ our outposts of agency. But purchasers usually prefer to deal with a principal rather than his agent, believing that an agent acts usually under limits that might be somewhat relaxed if the principal were on the spot. The principal, too, looks more exclusively to his own concerns than agents sometimes do, and at New York gains facilities in finance, also, that are not always to be found here. We are, therefore, only conforming to a necessity that always existed since we became manufacturers, but which is found to increase with the increase of business. Five-and-twenty years ago we tried "New England Sales" here, in the sanguine belief that purchasers would assemble at stated periods and clear our warehouses in a day. But the plan was a failure. An association formed to promote it has been kept alive to this day, and holds an annual meeting, with no result but a dinner, partly paid for from a small remnant of its funds, and an annual conclusion that the channels of Commerce are not easily to be changed.

We are told that our young men are going away. So they have always been going away, from a natural spirit of enterprise, to secure that elsewhere which they could not gain here by any change of circumstances that lies within our control.

THE MERCANTILE DRUMMER, A SOCIAL EVIL.

Our cotemporary of the *Wall-street Journal* discourseth after this manner of the individual known in commercial parlance as the "Drummer," who is generally a native of some country town of the many States circling the Commercial Emporium:—

After passing the formula of a rustic education, he migrates to the commercial emporium as a proper field to expand the germ yet struggling in the bud. A few years subordinate employment in acquiring the art and mystery of trade, and he takes position in the active ranks of the profession, eagerly awaiting the arrival of his country acquaintance, whom he obsequiously greets in the master-like manner of a professor of human philosophy, skillfully controlling all the springs of human character and bringing them to his chameleon-like complexion. The reader must not mistake the graduated "drummer" for an ordinary stamp of clay, although much diversity exists in peculiarity of disposition and habits. Their bearing is uniform as a company of regular soldiers. The most striking characteristic is that he revolves in his own circle, and any attempt to smuggle into the ranks by one unqualified by nature would cause the intruder to fall, like chaff from wheat. The ability to explore the different channels of thought and turn their current to meet your will, belong emphatically to the "drummer."

It may be well to inquire if these high qualifications are not sometimes made subservient of the best principles of human nature. The gift of intuitive powers adds too much to the amount of moral obligation to allow an inexperienced countryman to have the wool pulled over his eyes, and be worse than a mock auctioneer, without a corresponding retribution in loss of character and health, all of which too often recoils, leaving the victim a beacon of commercial cupidity. However essential the availability of the drumming qualifications may be to promote the pecuniary interest of the merchant, he cannot be altogether forgetful of the means too frequently resorted to to fill his soul-stained coffers.

On the other hand, we have the high-minded "drummer," with honor for his chart, taking his country friend by the hand without guile, deeming it morally wrong to impose on his credulity or violate his confidence, thus adding link to link in the chain of fair dealing, until he takes his position with those who honor themselves and the mercantile profession, by adherence to those high-toned commercial principles which have carried a few through the golden gates of Commerce unscathed by knavery.

GOVERNMENT CONTRACTS IN RUSSIA.

A certain quantity of well-seasoned oak being required, government issues tenders for the supply of the requisite amount. A number of contractors submit their tenders to a board appointed for the purpose of receiving them, who are regulated in their choice of a contractor, not by the amount of his tender, but of his bribe. The fortunate individual selected immediately sub-contracts upon a somewhat similar principle. Arranging to be supplied with timber for half the amount of his tender, the sub-contractor carries on the game, and perhaps the eighth link in this contracting chain is the man who, for an absurdly low figure, undertakes to produce the seasoned wood. His agents in the central provinces, accordingly, float a quantity of green pines and firs down the Dnieper and Bog to Nicholaieff, which are duly handed up to the head contractor, each man pocketing the difference between his contract and that of his neighbor. When the wood is produced before the board appointed to inspect it, another bribe seasons it, and the government, after paying the price of well-seasoned oak, is surprised that the 120 gun ship of which it has been built is unfit for service in five years.

ELOQUENCE OF A BOSTON MERCHANT.

While the committee of merchants, says the *Boston Transcript*, were collecting subscriptions in aid of the Boston testimonial to the San Francisco rescuers, a person was called upon whose benevolence is not exactly commensurate with his pecuniary ability. He hesitated about subscribing, as he averred the testimonial should come from persons engaged in Commerce, and he was not in the mercantile business. The member of the committee, with great promptness and justice, answered in something like the following terms: "Sir, your family recently crossed the ocean as passengers in a ship. Had she met with a disaster, and a friendly boat have come to take off those on board, and refused to save all persons but the sailors, as society had adopted the rule that each class of the community must take care of its own members and no others, what would have been your feelings to have known that your daughters were lost on account of their father's distinctions in cases of relief?" This manly and felicitous appeal was successful. It was truly a word "fitly spoken."

PROFITABLE INVESTMENT OF A BALTIMORE MERCHANT.

A merchant in Baltimore, on Monday, January 2, 1854, finding his success in business during the past year fully equal to his expectations, drew a thousand dollars from bank, and proportioned it among the nine or ten persons employed in his warehouse, down to the porter and drayman, the latter of whom received fifty dollars, at the same time commending them for their good conduct and devotion to his interests. The persons thus complimented immediately procured a handsome silver goblet, with an appropriate inscription, which was sent to their liberal employer, accompanied by a note, in which they promised the most earnest devotion to his interests as long as they shall remain in his employ. Without doubt, the New Year's donation will prove a most profitable investment, for where men are devoted to their employer's interest, they can and will in the course of a year do much for his benefit.

THE USURY LAWS.

The New York *Sun* closes an article in favor of the modification of the usury laws with the following statement:—"The truth is, so long as our present usury laws stand in the way of an honest, open trade in money, so long will the cunning capitalist be the gainer, and the honest borrower the loser. The great effect of our usury laws is to make rogues, legally, of men who would rather not be rogues in the eyes of the law or of the community."

A CASE OF LIFE INSURANCE.

A very peculiar case, says the *Rochester Union*, arising on a life policy, has recently been adjudicated in this judicial district. N. Osborne, Esq., at the instance of the late H. B. Williams, Esq., procured a policy of insurance upon his life, for some \$2,500, under these circumstances: Several risks had been taken prior to Mr. Williams leaving California, by an insurance agent in this city, and prior to the application of Mr. Osborne, which was declined. Mr. Osborne then made an application to a New York agency of a British Company, the application and certificate of Mr. Williams' health being dated September 5th. The risk was taken by the company in question, and the policy dated October 7th.

It so happened that on the evening of the very day on which the policy was issued, Mr. Williams died on the Isthmus, of cholera, of which he had been sick several days. The Company refused to pay, on the ground that Mr. Williams was unwell at the time the risk was taken. Suit was brought, and the court held that the policy was granted on the state of facts existing at the date of the application, and that the company assumed the risk involved in the subsequent lapse of time. Mr. Osborne recovered the whole amount of his claim, and the company has paid it.

THE SUCCESSFUL MERCHANT'S HEART.

Matthis, the Levantine merchant, had spent his whole life, from his boy-time upward, in traveling for the sake of gain, to the East and to the West, and to the islands of the South Seas. He had returned to his native place, Tarsus, in the full vigor of manhood, and was reported to have amassed great wealth. His first step was to make a prudent call upon the governor, and to present him with a purse and a string of pearls, in order to bespeak his good-will. Then he built himself a spacious palace in the midst of a garden on the borders of a stream, and began to lead a quiet life, resting after the fatigues of his many voyages. Most persons considered him to be the happiest of merchants; but those intimate with him, knew that his constant companions were thought and sadness. When he had departed in youth, he had left his father, and his brothers, and his sisters, in health although poor; but when he returned, in hopes to gild the remainder of their days, he found that the hand of death had fallen upon them every one, and that there was no one to share his prosperity: and a blight came over his heart.

FLOUR IN SACKS AND BARRELS.

In Europe flour and grain are transported in sacks instead of barrels as with us, on account of the little space they take up when empty; and the recent demand for breadstuffs has of course created a corresponding demand for sacks. The *Newburyport Herald*, referring to the anti-barrel prejudices of English traders and brokers, and that they will have nothing to do with our American flour in barrels, until it has been shot into sacks, says:—"The ceremony of shooting it is continually going on at the wharves and banks of the Thames, and furnishes daily employment to a particular class of men. There is another objection the Europeans make to barrels: from lack of the occasional movement and shaking which it undergoes in sacks, the flour settles down in them, and if untouched for a long period, has to be dug out in lumps, and pulverised again by rotating in a close wire cylinder set in rapid motion."

THE USE OF THE RULE OF THREE.

There are exceptions to every rule but the rule of three; that is never changed. As your income is to your expenditure, so will the amount of your debts be to your cash on hand and your consequent ability to meet them. If you allow your vanity to lead you into extravagance, you must rely on something else to take you out of it; either a rich relation or the sheriff's writ. Your furniture may be less showy than that of your neighbor, but never mind. Better are cane-bottomed chairs and mahogany tables that are paid for, than spring cushions and marble mantles on a note of six months. Your coat may be less fashionable than your neighbor's; and while he is driven by a liveried coachman, you may be riding shank's horse; but, remember there is a time for balancing the books, and every purse has got a bottom. So, economize, and always remember the rule of three.

"GOODS WELL BOUGHT ARE HALF SOLD."

This is a common maxim of trade, but like most maxims, which are condensations of popular wisdom, it needs some comment. When are goods well bought? What is to be understood by this expression? To many cheapness is the only standard. Goods are well bought when they are purchased cheap, and not otherwise. To accomplish this is their great passion, till they often become blinded to other considerations which should ever be in the mind of the trader, such as quality, seasonableness, and adaptedness to the wants of the people. To buy well is no easy work. It is not to run the rounds of inquiry to see whose prices are the most "liberal" in merely one sense, but it requires honesty, integrity, comprehensiveness, and a self-reliance that says, "I know my own business, what my customers want, what will be in demand at any given time in my vicinity, and what is the market value." A man who has nobler ends in view than merely to buy cheap, will meet with a treatment from respectable merchants which the "hard customer" can never receive. The old picture is true to the letter in our day: "It is naught, it is naught, saith the buyer! and straightway he goeth his way and boasteth." He haggles and disputes, depreciates the goods he examines, and pretends not to want what he must have, and is only suited when he has driven "a close bargain." And then he boasts—proclaims how low he has bought his goods, and how low he can sell them. But often all that is low about the matter was his manner of dealing, for there is more boasting on the part of the seller than on his part, that the biter has been bitten. Too many depend on a kind of shrewdness which is but one remove from duplicity and crime; but they soon become known, and then they get the worst of the bargain.

It is best to buy as honorable merchants sell—with manliness and with a fair regard for the essential principles of the true mercantile character. Every trader is interested in something besides good bargains. The honor of the business world is to be regarded. Character is something of inestimable worth. Influence is to be thought of. And a man should ask himself into what scale he is casting the weight of his manner of doing business, and should assure himself that he never buys well when he acts on false principles of trade, which tend to make trade but a trial of skill at trickery and deception.

HOW A BOSTON MERCHANT DISPOSED OF THIRTY THOUSAND DOLLARS.

One of the wealthy merchants of Boston, says the *Transcript*, whose death last year was universally mourned, often told his friends an anecdote in his own experience, and which was recommended to all those who desired to enjoy a serene old age, without allowing their wealth to disturb their peace of mind. He said that when he had obtained his fortune, he found he began to grow uneasy about his pecuniary affairs, and one night, when he was about sixty years of age, his sleep was disturbed by unpleasant thoughts respecting some shipments he had just made. In the morning, he said to himself, "This will never do; if I allow such thoughts to gain the mastery over me, I must bid farewell to peace all my life. I will stop this brood of care at once, and at a single blow." Accordingly, he went to his counting room, and upon examination found he had \$30,000 in money on hand. He made out a list of his relatives and others he desired to aid, and before he went to bed again he had given away every dollar of the thirty thousand. He said he slept well that night, and for a long time after his dreams were not disturbed by anxious thoughts about vessels or property.

CAPITAL FOR YOUNG MERCHANTS.

It is a consolation for all right-minded young men in this country, that though they may not be able to command as much pecuniary capital as they would wish to begin business with, yet there is a moral capital they can have, that will weigh as much as money with people whose opinion is worth having. And it does not take long to accumulate a respectable amount of this capital. It consists in truth, honesty, and integrity; to which may be added decision, firmness—courage, and perseverance. With these qualities there are few obstacles which cannot be overcome. Friends spring up and surround such a young man as if magic. Confidence flows out to him, and business accumulates on his hands. In a few years such a young man is in advance of many d with him. Moral capital is the thing after all.

 THE BOOK TRADE.

- 1.—*The Priest and the Huguenot; or Persecution in the Age of Louis XV.* From the French of M. BANGENER, author of the "Preacher and the King." 2 vols. 12mo., pp. 408 and 480. Boston: Gould & Lincoln.

It has been the design of this author, who is a clergyman of the Reformed Church of Geneva, to exhibit in his writings the religious aspects of France, from the age of Louis XIV. to the close of the last century. The first of his series has been published, and the second is contained in these volumes. The third, entitled "Voltaire and his Times," is about to be published in England, and the fourth is nearly completed by the author—thus presenting in a very graphic manner the state and relations of French Protestantism from the time immediately preceding the Nantz Edict down to the beginning of our own day. The reader who possesses an interest in such a general subject will be greatly gratified with these volumes. The intimate knowledge which they display of French life and manners, and especially of the condition of genuine Christianity in the French capital through a long and brilliant period, cannot fail to make a deep impression.

- 2.—*The Partisan: a Romance of the Revolution.* By W. GILMORE SIMMS, Esq. New and Revised Edition. 12mo., pp. 531. New York: Redfield.

The reputation of Simms is well established, and his merit as a writer extensively known. In this tale of the Revolution, the reader is presented with some of the most stirring scenes of that period which were transacted at the South. It is not merely a local chronicle, embodying traditionary heroes; the personages are, many of them, names well known to the world. In thus weaving fiction on the borders of fact, the author has had many important particulars relating to individuals to manage, which he has done with more than ordinary skill. We are gratified to see this new and revised edition of one of the best tales of the old times at the South which we possess. It is in good style, and will be read with renewed pleasure by those who have met with it before, while to younger readers it will be as fresh and entertaining as a first edition.

- 3.—*The American Statesman; or Illustrations of the Life and Character of Daniel Webster.* Designed for American Youth. By Rev. JOSEPH BANVARD, author of "Plymouth and the Pilgrims," "Romance of American History," &c., &c. 18mo., pp. 334. Boston: Gould & Lincoln.

Mr. Banvard, availing himself of the previously published memoirs and notices of the life and character of the great American statesman, has grouped the most interesting and important events which occurred in his history, and presented them in a very attractive and readable form. The commendable traits of his subject are held up for the admiration and imitation of American youth, and he has succeeded in preparing a work which every American patriot will be pleased to have his children read.

- 4.—*The Writings of Thomas Jefferson: Being his Autobiography, Correspondence, Reports, Messages, Addresses, and other Writings, Official and Private.* Vol. 2. 8vo., pp. 598. New York: John O. Riker.

We noticed at some length in a former number of the *Merchants' Magazine* the first volume of this work. It will probably be completed in nine or ten volumes during the present year. The work is published, as our readers are aware, we presume, by order of the joint Committee of Congress on the Library, from the original manuscripts deposited in the Department of State. This volume is devoted to a continuation of Mr. Jefferson's letters while in Europe, from 1784 to 1790. Each volume contains a table of contents, and a copious index, with explanatory notes prepared by H. A. Washington, Esq., the editor.

- 5.—*Helen Mulgrave; or, Jesuit Executorship: being Passages in the Life of a Seceder from Romanism.* An Autobiography. 12mo., pp. 312. New York: De Witt & Davenport.

A story of considerable power, designed to show the evils of the Roman Catholic religion.

- 6.—*Anecdotes of Painters, Engravers, Sculptors and Architects, and Curiosities of Art.* By Shearjashub Spooner, A. B., M. D., author of "A Biographical and Critical Dictionary of Painters, Engravers, Sculptors, and Architects, from ancient to modern times." 3 vols., 18mo., pp. 933. New York: George P. Putnam & Co.

These volumes contain nearly eight hundred anecdotes and sketches of art and artists. The trials, misfortunes, achievements and exaltations of men of genius and fine sensibilities are here grouped together in a readable form. The work is not a mere compilation or re-publication of anecdote, but contains a vast amount of original matter, and many interesting and instructive portions of the history of art. Dr. Spooner has devoted himself to the pursuit of illustrating art with a zeal and industry seldom equaled in any of the varied occupations and pursuits of life; and we are told that his labors have not been assumed through any mercenary or selfish motives. Of one thing we are quite sure, that the same talent, industry and perseverance invested in commercial pursuits would have insured him a fortune.

- 7.—*Putnam's Monthly Magazine of American Literature, Science and Art.* Vol. II, July to December, 1853. 8vo., pp. 690. New York: George P. Putnam & Co.

It must be gratifying to the enterprising publisher of this interesting periodical to know that its general management and the character of its contents have been such as to meet the cordial approval of a large majority of the most judicious and intelligent readers. It is stated in the preface to the volume before us, that of 930 articles received the volumes completed contain only about one in ten. The standard value of this magazine should secure it a place in each of the ten thousand School District Libraries of the State of New York.

- 8.—*The Lost Prince.* Facts tending to prove the Identity of Louis the Seventeenth of France and the Rev. Eleazar Williams, Missionary among the Indians of North America. By JOHN H. HANSON. 12mo., pp. 479. New York: G. P. Putnam & Co.

The object of this work is to group together the circumstances which tend to prove that in the person of a venerable clergyman of the Episcopal Church there is still living, in America, the representative of the ancient glories of the French monarchy. The subject, when first broached in *Putnam's Monthly*, excited great interest; and we are glad the author has undertaken the labor of investigating the subject, and done it so thoroughly.

- 9.—*The Works of Joseph Addison.* Vol. 3. 12mo., pp. 874. New York: George P. Putnam & Co.

The present volume contains the *Freeholder*, with Swift's notes on the same; the *Plebeian*, by Sir Richard Steele, with the *Old Whig*, by Mr. Addison; the *Tattler*; the *Guardian*; and the *Siren*. This is, as we have before stated, the most complete edition of Mr. Addison's works heretofore published either in England or the United States. No well-selected library can be anything like complete without Addison's writings.

- 10.—*Lyrics from "The Wide, Wide World."* The words by W. J. BELLAMY, the music by C. W. GLOVER. 8vo., pp. 50. New York: George P. Putnam & Co.

This book contains half a dozen poems, set to music, with titles as follows: The home where changes never come—My own, my gentle mother—The snow-storm, (a duet)—The wood ramble—Lovely, lovely all below; and, Calmly, brightly, day is fading.

- 11.—*The Potiphar Papers.* Reprinted from *Putnam's Monthly*. Illustrated by A. HOPPIN. 12mo., pp. 256. New York: Geo. P. Putnam & Co.

These piquant papers, seven in number, have been reprinted in a beautiful style. "Our best society in New York" is presented, or rather portrayed to the life, in these exceeding clever sketches. The illustrations of Hoppin are capital.

- 12.—*Ellen Montgomery's Book Shelf.* By the author of "The Wide, Wide World," "Dollars and Cents," &c., &c. New York: G. P. Putnam & Co.

"Carl Krinker: his Christmas Stories," is the third interesting and instructive series of tales for the young, by the gifted author of "The Wide, Wide World," and her sister.

- 13.—*Similitudes.* By LUCY LARCOM. 18mo., pp. 103. Boston: J. P. Jewett & Co.

Forty beautiful similitudes, happily illustrated in chaste and apposite words, each inculcating some moral, religious, or social grace.

- 14.—*Hypatia; or New Foes with an Old Face.* By CHARLES KINGSLEY, Jr., Rector of Eversley. 2 vols. 12mo., pp. 301 and 325. Boston: Crosby, Nichols & Co.

Those who have read the "Alton Locke" and "Feast" of Mr. Kingsley will not forego the intellectual riches the present work has to offer. It is well remarked by a cotemporary, that in human sympathies, and in earnestness of purpose, Mr. Kingsley stands far before our own novelists. This may be observed in the present volumes, in which there seem to be two prominent objects kept in view. The danger of doing evil that good may come, is shown in the unjustifiable excesses into which Cyril was led by his sincere fanaticism in behalf of the Church. The example of Hypatia is taken to indicate the fatal effects which may result to vital religion by the introduction of the refinements of mysticism and the eclectic philosophy. These perils which beset men at that time, the author regards as equally threatening in our own century. As an effort of creative power and genius, Hypatia is regarded as more creditable to the author than any of its predecessors, not excepting Alton Locke.

- 15.—*Hot Corn: Life Scenes in New York Illustrated.* Including the Song of Little Katy, Madalina, the Rag Picker's Daughter, Wild Maggie, &c. With original designs, engraved by N. Orr. By SOLON ROBINSON. 12mo., pp. 408. New York: Dewitt & Davenport.

The "Hot Corn Stories," published from time to time in the Tribune, and many more like them from the same powerful pen, have been collected and published in a handsome volume of more than four hundred pages. Several of our public journals have denounced this strikingly effective book in no measured terms, while the press generally speak of it in terms of the highest commendation. It certainly exposes, in a most simple and unaffected style, to "open day, the hidden effects by rum;" and as an expose of life among the lowly and the poor of New York, it will be read with deep interest in all parts of the country. Indeed we are told that it has already reached a sale of forty thousand copies.

- 16.—*On the Use and Abuse of Alcoholic Liquors in Health and Disease.* By WM. B. CARPENTER, M. D., F. R. S., Examiner in Physiology in the University of London, Professor of Medical Jurisprudence in University College, and author of "Principles of Physiology," &c., &c. With a preface by D. F. Condie, M. D., Secretary of the College of Physicians of Philadelphia, and author of "A Practical Treatise on the Diseases of Children," &c., &c. 12mo., pp. 178. Philadelphia: Blanchard & Lea.

This essay received the prize of one hundred guineas. It was unanimously selected as the best from fifteen different essays transmitted to the adjudicators, three of the most distinguished medical men in London, together with Prince Albert and the Duke of Cambridge. The subject is discussed with great ability, and the conclusions of the learned author will meet the approval of every friend of science and humanity.

- 17.—*Sketches of the Irish Bar.* By the Rt. Hon. RICHARD LALOR SHIEL, M. P. With a Memoir and Notes, by R. Shelton Mackenzie, D. C. L. In 2 vols. 12mo., pp. 768. New York: J. S. Redfield.

These sketches were originally published in a periodical, and they are now first collected by Dr. Mackenzie. They are deeply interesting, coming as they do from one of the most brilliant orators of Ireland. The sketches are of a threefold character. Some individual, relating to public men; some to the practice of the Irish Bar, as exhibited in reports of interesting criminal cases; and the third class to narratives of public events connected with the cause of civil and religious liberty in Ireland. The memoir by Dr. Mackenzie, though brief, is quite comprehensive, and the copious notes which are scattered over the volumes add materially to the value and interest of the work.

- 18.—*Uncle Sam's Palace; or the Reigning King.* By EMMA WILLMOTT. Illustrated by Billings. 12mo., pp. 308. Boston: B. B. Mussey.

A temperance tale, designed to gain friends to the Maine liquor law. The leading character is a wholesale liquor merchant, whose place of business is on one of the most central wharves in one of our commercial marts. The aim of the author is to portray the effects of the liquor traffic on those who are engaged in it, rather than on those who support it. It is written in a spirited and pleasing style, and its truthful and graphic delineations must secure for it many readers who even doubt the efficacy of legislating men into temperance.

- 19.—*Isaac T. Hopper: A True Life.* By L. MARIA CHILD. 12mo., pp. 493. Boston: John P. Jewett & Co.

Mrs. Child's acquaintance with the subject of the memoir, and her appreciation of his noble character, give the reader a deep interest in the *True Life* so finely depicted in these pages. A prominent portion of the book, consisting of the narratives and anecdotes of fugitive slaves, were originally written by himself, but were remodeled by the pen of the authoress. These acts were closely allied to him, being a part of his life. The biography exhibits an intrepid philanthropy, an uncompromising integrity, and true Christian sympathy, which we seldom see so beautifully blended in one character, verifying the remark of a friend, at his death—"that his life was an unbroken history of beneficence." The memoir, so finely written, with its narratives of the trying incidents of his humble Quaker life, has all the interest of a romance. It will be interesting to children, and no adult can ponder aright these pages without being impressed with the goodness and greatness of true philanthropy.

- 20.—*Pulpit Portraits, or Pen Pictures of Distinguished American Divines.* With Sketches of Congregations and Choirs, and Incidental Notices of Eminent British Preachers. By JOHN ROSS DIX. 12mo., pp. 256. Boston: Tappan & Wetmore.

Mr. Dix is known to the literary world as the author of a number of popular works published in England and America. He is an Englishman by birth, but has resided in the United States for several years past. His "Passages from the History of a Wasted Life" noticed in a former number of this Magazine, it is said, is from his own sad and sorrowful experience. His "Pen-and-Ink Sketches," "Pen Pictures of English Preachers," were quite popular, and his "Life of Chatterton" a work of rare merit. The present volume will add to his reputation as a graceful and graphic limner of pulpit orators in this country. His description of the Beechers, Dr. Cox, Bethune, and some others of that ilk, will strike those familiar with their character and style of oratory as faithful and well drawn.

- 21.—*Haps and Mishaps. A Tour in Europe,* by GRACE GREENWOOD. 12mo., pp. 487. Boston: Ticknor, Reed & Fields.

This accomplished authoress, in this new work, gives to her readers an account of a year's tour in Europe. Although so many travelers have related their impressions of the same places, yet we find in this volume a new interest, awakened by the animated and glowing descriptions of this classic ground, growing out of the enthusiasm and deep appreciation of the historical associations which the authoress feels, and which she inspires in the mind of the reader. The book cannot fail of interesting the reader; its naturalness and beautiful style of description, with the many delightful incidents and little gems of thought which mark the journey through, will make the work not only acceptable, but highly instructive and entertaining.

- 22.—*The Recalled, in Voices of the Past, and Poems of the Ideal.* By JANE ERMINA LOCKE. 18mo., pp. 246. Boston: James Munroe & Co.

A collection of poems upon various subjects, some of which exhibit a true poetic talent. The versification is good, and many of the pieces show a purity of sentiment and deep religious feeling which commends them to the reader, as do the ease and naturalness which characterize many of the poems. Take them as a whole, they are exceedingly meritorious, and deserve much commendation. May the writer meet with the appreciation she deserves.

- 23.—*Vasconcelos, or Romance of the New World.* By FRANK COOPER. 12mo., pp. 531. New York: J. S. Redfield.

As a historical romance, embodying a very curious and interesting progress during a very striking period in modern discovery, this work will be read with interest by all who desire to increase their familiarity with one of the most magnificent episodes in American history. It is written in a spirited and vigorous style, and will compare favorably with works of fiction published at home or abroad.

- 24.—*Poems and Parodies.* By PHEBE CAREY. 18mo., pp. 200. Boston: Ticknor, Reed & Fields.

The poems are simple. Many of them have merit, and the verse flows easily and naturally. The "Parodies" are not so good as the "Poems." They are to be commended, however, for their variety, and show considerable poetic ingenuity and talent though not of the highest order.

- 25.—*The Old Brewery, and the New Mission House at the Five Points.* By Ladies of the Mission. 12mo., pp. 304. New York: Stringer & Townsend.

This volume gives a description of the Old Brewery, and the causes which resulted in its demolition; also the erection of the new Mission House, on the site of this wretched landmark of vice and degradation. The Home Missionary Society present to the public a history of their operations, showing the success which has crowned their efforts in this mission of mercy to the most benighted part of New York, and the many discouragements with which the undertaking was carried on. The book cannot be read without edification. The thrilling incidents recorded exhibit cases of reformation where almost every spark of goodness seemed extinct. They are no fictitious stories, but facts which hundreds are ready to attest. The simple annals are given by the Society as the best exponent of its operations, and their results so far. The perusal of the volume will be profitable to all interested in active benevolence and Christian charity.

- 26.—*The Hydropathic Family Physician; a Ready Prescriber and Hygienic Adviser, with reference to the Nature, Causes, Prevention and Treatment of Diseases, Accidents and Casualties of every kind.* By JOEL SHAW, M. D. Illustrated with nearly three hundred engravings. 12mo. New York: Fowlers & Wells.

Dr. Shaw was, we believe, the first to introduce hydropathy, or the water-cure, into the United States, and has written and published here some dozen works on the subject, which have obtained a wide circulation. A system which has for its prophylactics and medicaments water, air, exercise, and diet, is undoubtedly the greatest of all medical improvements known to man. The present work is designed for popular use, and it seems to have been Dr. Shaw's object to make it the most full and explicit with reference to the nature, causes, symptoms, and treatment of diseases and accidents ever before published. The work covers over eight hundred pages, and probably contains all the improvements and discoveries that a long and successful practice have suggested, not only to the author's mind, but to the most scientific men who have adopted the system in other countries.

- 27.—*The Young Voyageurs; or the Boy Hunters in the North.* By Captain MAYNE REID, author of the "Boy Hunters," "The Desert Home," &c. With twelve illustrations, by Harvey. 18mo., pp. 360. Boston: Ticknor, Reed & Fields.

In the "Boy Hunters" Captain Reid illustrated the fauna of the temperate zone of the American continent. In the present work, the "Young Voyageurs" make a grand journey through the "fur countries," where they meet with nearly all the wild creatures that inhabit that cold and desolate region. In illustrating the habits and history of God's wild creatures, the author has often selected only their more peculiar characteristics. The "Young Voyageurs" will, we predict, be as popular as the "Boy Hunters;" and we may add that it is as replete with interest as any of the previous works of its author.

- 28.—*Clovernook; or, Recollections of our Neighborhood in the West.* Second series. By ALICE CAREY. 12mo., pp. 364. New York: J. S. Redfield.

Those who have read and admired the volume previously published under the title of "Clovernook," will not be influenced by anything we can say of the present volume, farther than that it is equal in value and interest to that which preceded it. To others we will say that Miss Carey's sketches are graphically drawn, in chaste and appropriate words. To the amusing and characteristic she adds, in an eminent degree, the graceful and the instructive.

- 29.—*Scenes from the Life of an Actor.* Compiled from the Journals, Letters, and Memoranda of the late YANKEE HILL. With original illustrations, engraved on wood by J. W. ORR. 12mo., pp. 246. New York: Garrett & Co.

We knew Yankee Hill, as he was familiarly termed, well, and a more genial, generous-hearted man never lived. The present volume embodies many interesting and pleasing reminiscences of his life, mainly derived from his journals, letters, and memoranda, and is withal one of the most interesting and attractive publications of its class that has been published in a long time.

- 30.—*The Boston Almanac for 1854.* Boston: J. P. Jewett & Co.

This is one of the best works of its class published. It contains, among other things of interest, a business directory, embracing the name and place of business of firms or individuals engaged in the different branches of trade and manufactures, classified and arranged under appropriate heads.

- 31.—*Mrs. Ben Darby; or the Weal and Woe of Social Life.* By MARIA COLLINS. 12mo., pp. 367. Cincinnati: Moore, Anderson, Wilstack & Keys.

A most interesting series of pictures of American social life, drawn by a very clever artist—one who professes a knowledge of society as it appears in city and country, town and village, whether seen amid the gay throngs of Saratoga, or the brilliant drawing-room of the great metropolis; or, in its more rustic developments, in the beautiful valleys of the Blue Ridge, or on the broad prairies of the West. Mrs. Collins has shown her ability to delineate character with a power rarely equalled; her pictures, whether of high life or squalid poverty, are portrayed in colors that cannot be mistaken, and their counterparts are sure to be located and recognized in every portion of our land.

- 32.—*The Lectures Complete of Father Gavazzi, as delivered in New York.* Reported by an eminent Stenographer, and revised and corrected by Gavazzi himself; including translations of his Italian addresses, with which the greatest part of the Lectures were prefaced; to which is prefixed, under his authority and revision, the Life of Gavazzi, continued to the time of his visit to America. By G. B. NICOLINI, his friend and fellow exile, author of a History of the late Roman Republic. 12mo., pp. 893. New York: M. W. Dodd.

The copious title which we have quoted above exhibits pretty fully the character and contents of this work. Besides a comprehensive memoir of the "great antagonist of the Romish Church," the volume embraces two courses, of ten lectures each. In a note to the publisher, Father Gavazzi indorses the work, and says it is the only correct edition of his lectures authorized and revised by himself.

- 33.—*The Bow in the Cloud: Discourses.* By GEORGE WARE BRIGGS, Minister of the First Church in Salem, Mass. 18mo., pp. 280. Boston: James Monroe & Co.

A new edition of a very excellent series of religious discourses. The first edition contained fifteen; these have been revised, and nine, not heretofore published, have been added. The original character of the book has not been changed, although the additions made give more variety to its contents. The consolatory character of the work is retained; and we have no doubt but that in its present form it will meet the wants of many mourning hearts.

- 34.—*Memoir of Pierre Toussaint, born a Slave in St. Domingo.* By the author of "Three Experiments in Living," "Sketches of the Lives of the Puritans," &c. 18mo., pp. 124. Boston: Crosby, Nichols & Co.

Toussaint was born in servitude in St. Domingo, and flew with his mistress to this country, where the former slave and dependent became the sole support of the unfortunate lady, and her disinterested friend until her death. It is a simple, beautiful and unexaggerated biography of an African, with a soul large enough to find a home in a form of any other color.

- 35.—*Passion Flowers.* 18mo., pp. 187. Boston: Ticknor, Reed & Fields.

Poems of every variety and length. The subjects of them lofty, sentiment pure, and versification correct. Whoever the author is, he evinces more than ordinary merit, and much poetic fire and genius.

- 36.—*Popular Music.* Published by S. C. JOLLIE, 300 Broadway, New York.

Mr. Jollie has published during the past year, among other popular pieces of music, the following:—The Katy-Did Polka, or Souvenirs of Castle Garden, by Jullien—The Atlantic's Return, Schottische, music arranged for the piano by Johann Manck—La Pluie d'Or, Valse Gracieuse, pour le piano, composed by William Vincent Wallace—The Garland Waltz, by John C. Poole—The Estafete Galop, by Herman Koenig—Grand Quadrille, from Verdi's Opera, by Jullien—Blue Bell Polka, from Jullien's Musical Tour—The Nepaulese Quadrille—The Hibernian Quadrille, by Jullien—The Prima Donna, words by James Simmonds, music by Thomas Baker, and the English Quadrille.

- 37.—*New Music.* WILLIAM HALL & SON have lately published the Village Festival Schottisch, composed by Wm. Hallarr; Amity Schottisch, composed by Fr. Rietzel, leader of the National Guard Band; Flora Mazurka, composed by Wm. Jucho; and the Hazel Dell, Song and Chorus, by Wurzel.

These pieces are published in a beautiful style.

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HUNT'S MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE

AND COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

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APRIL, 1854.  
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Art. I.—TRADE OF THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE.

TRADE OF SALONICA, ETC., FOR 1850.

CONSTANTINOPLE, Smyrna, Alexandria, and Salonica, are considered the chief commercial ports of the empire. These are now (1854) all closely connected by steamers under Turkish, Austrian, French, and British flags, while in 1832, there was not *one* steamer plying in the whole Archipelago. Steam navigation has fulfilled a mission in civilization, which tends to show in a very forcible manner that science is the real and surest civilizer, and, consequently, the liberator of man.

Salonica is situated at the head of the gulf of that name, in Lat. $40^{\circ} 38' 47''$ N., and Lon. $22^{\circ} 57' 13''$ E. The population is now regarded as being about 8,000. The port is but an indifferent one, yet the roadstead is safe. The city is built upon very low ground and is unhealthy for those not acclimated. Fevers, both intermittent and pernicious, are frequent. Until lately it was a station of the B. M. F. Missions, but, on account of the ill health of its missionaries, it has been entirely abandoned. There was also, formerly, a consulate of the United States at Salonica, which was filled for many years by the late Mr. Llewellyn, an English merchant of much intelligence. He had, by his commercial correspondence, commenced a trade with the United States, and several American vessels loaded at Salonica for the United States; but since his death the consulate has been discontinued, except by a consular agent appointed by the consulate of Constantinople. This agent having also lately died, there is now no American agent at this port, which is to be regretted, as its importance as a commercial mart, shown by the following report, might, hereafter, be participated in by the United States. A vice-consul with a salary of \$1,000 or \$1,500 per annum, would, with permission to trade, form in a few years, by means of his correspon-

dence with the mercantile men of New York, Boston, etc., open relations of value between this part of Turkey and those cities. Without pecuniary assistance, it cannot reasonably be expected that any commercial man would become a pioneer for the benefit of others. A few years trial would test the correctness of this proposition.

I have the pleasure of making the following report on the trade of the port of Salonica during the year 1850, and I hope soon to be able to add also that of the following year. I subjoin to this report, one of the Commerce of the smaller ports of the Gulf of Salonica, of Macedonia, and Thessaly, for the same period, including Tchaiaza or Orfano, (port of Ceres,) of Cavallo, and Volo.

It will be seen by the present report that the imports at Salonica in 1850 were as follows:—

In 272 sailing vessels.....	Piasters. 24,172,476
In 105 steamers.....	17,248,978
Making the total imports	41,421,448

The exports of 1850 were—

In 208 sailing vessels	Piasters. 16,625,266
In 105 steamers.....	14,995,890
Making the total exports.....	31,621,156

On the first view it will seem that the imports of Salonica had exceeded the exports. But it must be considered that the ports of Macedonia and of Thessaly, together export more than that of Salonica, while the amount of their imports does not equal one-third of the sum, and that one-quarter of the goods imported to Salonica is even consumed in the interior of Macedonia and Thessaly, the products of which are shipped from Salonica or from the aforesaid ports. Thus, it will be seen that, in reality, the balance is in favor of the latter province. It cannot well be otherwise, as the advanced position taken by agriculture, gives to exportation the greater part of its products. The following statement will sufficiently prove this assertion:—

I have remarked that Salonica imported by sailing vessels and steamers—

To the amount of.....	Piasters. 41,421,448
Orfano or Tchaiaza imported.....	769,000
Cavalla imported.....	860,000
Volo imported	11,343,050
Total.....	54,393,498
The exports of Salonica amounted to	31,621,156
Those of Orfano.....	11,587,900
“ “ Cavallo.....	8,943,000
“ “ Volo	18,997,850
Total exports.....	71,149,406

It results from this that the exports offer an excess over the imports of 16,755,908 piasters, which, as a means of counterbalance in Constantinople, must be covered by bills upon Europe, negotiated at that city. This acts as an equipoise to the difference existing every year in favor of the imports.

The operations of the bank between Salonica and Constantinople are ordinarily much affected by this. And this is the interest of the government, if it desires to keep the exchange low upon Europe, as also on the other hand to increase its revenue by augmenting the wealth of the country, and to increase by all possible means the agricultural sources of exportation.

The following is the description of imports by sailing vessels, including also the number of vessels, loaded and in ballast, which visited the port of Salonica in 1850:—

IMPORTS AT SALONICA.

	Piasters.
47 English sailing vessels, 29 loaded with coffee, sugar, pepper, lead, iron, manufactures, charcoal, &c., to the amount of	7,832,500
4 Ionic sailing vessels loaded with soap and wheat.	296,840
Making 33 vessels loaded	7,628,840
10 Austrian sailing vessels, 5 loaded with coffee, rum, steel, paper, pepper, iron wire, glassware, crockery, barley, wheat, furniture, &c., to amount of.	238,500
	7,867,840
24 French sailing vessels, loaded with coffee, sugar, leather from Buenos Ayres, pepper, paper, calfskins, colonials, crapes, cochineal, &c., to amount of.	1,286,700
— Total 62 vessels, loaded to amount of	9,154,040
35 Vessels, 62 loaded.	
196 Greek sailing vessels. Of those 88 were loaded with lemons, oranges, sugar, coffee, wheat, barley, iron, soap, salt, indigo, cochineal, manufactures, dried grapes, salted fish, &c.	5,712,890
4 Neapolitan—with salt.	27,150
8 Netherland sailing vessels, of which 2 were loaded with sugar. . .	751,740
117 Ottoman, of which there were 102 loaded with manufactures, window glasses, glassware, colors, soap, dried fruits, coffee, paper, sugar, rice, indigo, cochineal, salt, lemons, salted skins, barley, wheat, etc.	6,312,740
10 Samian sailing vessels loaded with lemons, oranges, soap, coffee, iron, etc.	333,000
1 Walack in ballast
(Altogether 128 Ottoman; 112 loaded to amount of 6,645,740 piasters, 16 in ballast.	
6 Prussian sailing vessels of which 1 only was loaded with sugar. .	110,000
17 Russian sailing vessels, of which 1 was loaded with sugar, rice, coffee, wheat, dried, grapes, pepper, glassware, etc.	511,200
17 Sardinian sailing vessels with leather from Buenos Ayres, coffee, salt, pepper, sugar, rum, cochineal, barley, wheat, furniture, etc. .	1,259,715
— Total, 287 sailing vessels loaded.	24,172,475
456 Total number of sailing vessels at Salonica in 1850; loaded 287, in ballast 169.	

But in addition there arrived the following number of steamers:—

	Piasters.
55 Austrian steamers from Constantinople and the Dardanelles, loaded with colonials, manufactures, hardware, tin plate in leaf, leather, silk, red caps, cloths, cotton cloths, horologes, jewelry, silver plate, paper, glassware, &c., to the amount of.	12,535,790
50 Ottoman steamers from Constantinople, loaded with manufactures, colonials, etc.	4,713,183
105 steamers to amount of.	17,248,973

EXPORTS FROM SALONICA.

	Piasters.
45 English sailing vessels of which 25 were loaded with wheat and maize to the amount of.....	2,997,590
1 Maltese in ballast
3 Ionic "
10 Austrian, of which 8 were loaded with maize, barley, oats, linseed, wool, tobacco in leaves, yellow wax, rye, ox & sheep skins.....	1,343,490
23 French, of which there were 18 loaded with silk cocoons, wool, sesame, linseed, leaf tobacco, sheep & lamb skins, etc.....	4,952,000
190 Greek, 93 loaded with coals, maize, barley, wheat, coarse cloths, timber, leaf tobacco, etc.....	2,261,525
4 Neapolitan, 2 loaded with barley.....	89,150
3 Netherland, 1 " " maize.....	97,636
109 Ottoman, 84 loaded with tobacco in leaves, vegetables, dried fruits, barley, timber, archivolts, carpet, coarse cloths, wool, silk, lamb bones, snuff, coals, etc.....	2,877,810
1 Wallack in ballast.....
11 Samian loaded with vegetables, coals, etc.....	153,500
6 Prussian, 3 loaded with maize.....	353,060
15 Russian, 14 loaded with maize, cotton, wheat, coals, etc.....	483,105
16 Sardinian, 10 loaded with sesame, barley, rye, oats, maize, millet, chick-peas, hemp, cocoons, linseed, leaches, yellow wax, etc....	1,016,400
427 Of which 219 were loaded.....	16,625,266

Besides these sailing vessels, there were 105 steamers which exported as follows :—

	Piasters.
55 Austrian steamers for Constantinople, the Dardanelles, and Europe, by the latter outlet ; all loaded with silk, cocoons, leaches, wool, carpets, butter, tallow, wool stockings, towels, furs, goat and lamb skins, to the amount of	11,179,190
50 Ottoman steamers bound for Constantinople, loaded with coarse cloths, tobacco, snuff, wool, stockings, etc.....	3,816,700
105 Exports by sailing vessels	14,995,890
	16,625,266
Total exports at Salonica.....	31,621,156

IMPORTS AT TCHAIKAZIA.

	Piasters.
7 English sailing vessels, 3 loaded with iron	242,000
5 Austrian, 1 loaded with manufactures	60,000
8 French in ballast.....
35 Greek, 7 loaded with salt, sugar, coffee, manufactures, etc.....	234,000
1 Neapolitan loaded with salt.....	9,000
12 Ottoman, 7 loaded with rice, olives, manufactures, salt, etc.....	224,000
3 Russian in ballast
71 Of which 19 were loaded, amounting to.....	769,000

These constitute the vessels and their imports at Tchakazia.

EXPORTS FROM TCHAIKAZIA.

	Piasters.
6 English, 5 loaded with maize.....	425,000
5 Austrian, 4 loaded with maize and cotton	1,395,000
8 French, 6 loaded with sesame, cotton, wool, and maize.....	1,583,000
32 Greek, 30 loaded with cotton, maize, leaf tobacco, coals, etc....	7,752,900
1 Neapolitan in ballast.....
10 Ottoman, 4 loaded with timber, coals, etc.....	112,000
2 Russian, 1 loaded with cotton.....	320,000
64 Of which 50 were loaded, amounting to.....	11,587,900

IMPORTS AT CAVALLO.

	Piasters.
3 English, 1 loaded with manufactures.....	72,000
4 Austrian in ballast.....
6 French ".....
51 Greek, 25 loaded with salt, soap, coffee, sugar, manufactures, salt fish, etc.....	680,000
45 Ottoman, 16 loaded with salt, oil, soap, and timber.....	108,000
109	860,000

EXPORTS FROM CAVALLO.

3 English, 2 loaded with maize.....	800,000
4 Austrian loaded with tobacco and maize.....	1,520,000
7 French loaded with cotton and leaf tobacco.....	2,055,000
50 Greek, 35 loaded with wheat, maize, leaf tobacco, vegetables, etc.	1,732,000
45 Ottoman, 20 loaded with maize, tobacco in leaves, vegetables, rice, etc.....	3,338,000
109 Vessels, of which 68 were loaded, amounting to.....	8,943,000

IMPORTS AT VOLO.

5 English in ballast.....
9 Austrian ".....
6 French ".....
255 Greek, 70 loaded with salt, manufactures, sugar, iron, lemons, etc., to the amount of.....	4,158,500
275 Vessels, of which 70 were loaded, amounting to.....	4,158,500

EXPORTS FROM VOLO.

5 English vessels, —, Indian corn.....	878,000
9 Austrian, with wheat, corn, and sesame.....	1,156,000
4 French with sesame and oil.....	815,500
262 Greek, of which 145 loaded with grain, sesame, oil, olives, cotton, silk, tobacco, and coarse cloths called abas.....	7,764,000
150 Ottoman, 105 loaded with tobacco in leaf, grains, olives, sesame, and abas.....	7,470,000
11 Russian, 6 loaded with cotton, oil, sesame, abas, corn, wood, etc..	613,850
441 Vessels, 274 of which were loaded, amounting to.....	18,697,000

IMPORTS AT SALONICA, 1851.

30 English sailing vessels, 23 loaded with coffee, iron, manufactures, sugar, charcoal, &c., to the amount of.....	10,607,290
1 Ionic, loaded with soap.....	122,000
6 Austrian, 4 loaded with manufactures, medicine chests, paper, colonials, drugs, etc.....	485,900
14 French, 8 loaded with sugar, coffee, soap, paper, leather, etc.....	1,130,465
225 Greek, 168 loaded with wheat, barley, soap, coffee, sugar, lemons, oil, glass, maize, coal, iron, salt, dried fruit.....	4,180,427
4 Netherland, 3 with sugar.....	307,800
3 Norwegian, in ballast.....
90 Ottoman, 83 loaded with manufactures, soap, iron, lead, hardware, dried fruits, lemons, oranges, paper, cochineal, pepper, coffee, sugar, rice, cotton, etc.....	7,728,602
1 from Jerusalem, with rice.....	15,750
12 Samians, 7 loaded with soap, dried fruit, etc.....	438,700
[103 Ottoman, altogether; 91 loaded to amount to 8,183,052 piasters, 12 in ballast.]	
6 Prussian, 1 loaded with sugar, coffee, etc.....	48,800
9 Russian, 8 loaded with wheat, timber, iron, dried fruit, etc.....	141,400
6 Sardinian, with coffee, sugar, and Buenos Ayres leather.....	1,591,845
1 Swede sailing vessel, with tin-plate in leaf, iron, etc.....	200,000
408 Sailing vessels, of which 314 were loaded to the value of.....	26,998,979

Besides these 408 sailing vessels, there arrived as follows —

	Piasters.
51 Austrian steamers, from Constantinople and the Dardanelles, loaded with manufactures, colonials, silk, drapery, Jewelry, etc.	17,948,150
50 Ottoman steamers from Constantinople, loaded similarly.....	4,359,887
101 Steamers, loaded to the amount of.....	22,308,037
Imports by sailing vessels.....	26,998,979
Imports by steamers.....	22,308,037
Total importation, 1851.....	49,307,016

EXPORTS FROM SALONICA IN 1851.

32 English sailing vessels, with maize, millet, hemp-seed, &c., to the amount of	1,915,400
2 Ionic, 1 loaded with soap	122,000
5 Austrian, 3 loaded with maize, animal bones, etc.	315,040
15 French, 11 with silks, cocoons, maize, oats, &c., to the amount of..	1,875,135
234 Greek, 94 with wheat, barley, maize, timber, wine, etc.....	1,321,524
4 Netherlander, 1 loaded with sugar, etc.....	11,000
3 Norwegian, with maize, millet, etc.....	337,260
88 Ottoman, 54 with smoking tobacco, coarse cloth, charcoal, timber for building.....	2,123,070
1 from Jerusalem, loaded with tobacco and building timber	83,538
12 Samians, 7 with charcoal, vegetables, etc.....	165,670
[101 Ottoman in all; 62 loaded to the am't of 2,372,278 pias.]	
5 Prussian, 4 with maize	753,960
11 Russian, 6 with timber, maize, barley, etc.....	543,900
8 Sardinian, 7 with maize, sesame, oats, cocoons.....	877,192
1 Swede, in ballast
421 Sailing vessels.....	9,944,689

Beside these, there were 101 steamers, which have exported as follows:—

	Piasters.
51 Austrian, to the amount of.....	6,973,450
50 Ottoman "	3,457,842
101 Steamers.....	10,431,292
Exports by sailing vessels.....	9,944,689
Exports by steamers.....	10,431,292
Total exportation.	20,875,981

IMPORTATION AT TCHALIAZIA, 1851.

1 English, in ballast
5 French, in ballast.....
34 Greek, 6 with colonials, paper, provisions, glass-ware, etc.....	253,500
37 Ottoman, 9 with oil, soap, etc.	189,000
1 Russian, in ballast
78	442,500

EXPORTATION FROM TCHALIAZIA, 1851.

2 English, 1 with cotton	155,000
5 French, 4 with cotton, wool, sesame ..	580,440
33 Greek, 12 with cotton, vegetables, tobacco, rye, etc.....	453,000
36 Ottoman, 15 with cotton, tobacco in leaf, timber, rice, vegetables..	405,000
1 Russian, with charcoal.....	8,000
77 vessels, of which 33 were loaded to the amount of	1,601,440

IMPORTS AT CAVALLO, 1851.

	Piasters.
4 English, in ballast
6 Austrian, 1 with glass-ware, sugar, rum, and steel	360,000
6 French, in ballast.
50 Greek, 21 with provisions, colonials, manufactures, dried fruit, etc.	684,000
5 Ionian, 1 with coffee, sugar, soap	48,000
47 Ottoman, 8 with provisions, soap, colonials, salt, and manufactures	576,000
4 in ballast—1 Russian, 1 Sardinian, 1 Servian, 1 Wallachian
122	1,668,000

EXPORTS FROM CAVALLO.

4 English, 2 with tobacco in leaf, and maize	1,082,000
6 Austrian, 5 with tobacco in leaf, and maize	1,344,000
6 French, with leaf tobacco	2,160,000
49 Greek, 25 with leaf tobacco, maize, and barley	1,872,000
5 Ionian, 2 with leaf tobacco and maize	144,000
48 Ottoman, 41 with leaf tobacco, rice, and provisions	4,896,000
1 Russian, with leaf tobacco	168,000
1 Sardinian, with leaf tobacco	240,000
1 Servian, loaded with leaf tobacco	156,000
1 Wallachian, loaded with the same	264,000
122 vessels, of which 87 were loaded to the amount of	12,276,000

IMPORTS TO VOLO, 1851.

3 English, in ballast
262 Greek, 83 with manufactures, provisions, colonials, soap, etc.	3,960,000
169 Ottoman, 87 with soap, provisions, colonials, grain, etc.	2,958,000
6 Russian, all loaded with, soap, manufactures, etc.	356,600
440 vessels, of which 176 were loaded to the amount of	7,274,600

EXPORTS FROM VOLO.

3 English, 1 loaded with leaf tobacco, grain, sesame, cocoons, etc.	655,000
263 Greek, 98 with leaf tobacco, cotton, sesame, grain, cocoons, etc.	4,596,000
180 Ottoman, 101 with leaf tobacco, grain, ordinary cloth, skeins of silk, etc.	3,653,500
7 Russian, 6 with leaf tobacco, oil, olives, etc.	481,200
453 vessels, of which 206 were loaded to the amount of	9,385,700

In summing up the Commerce of Tchaiazia and Cavallo, it will be seen that, together, it is equal in value to the Commerce of Volo. This last port, being now placed in direct communication with Constantinople by means of the new line of packets of the Ottoman Company, it has greatly increased, and will most certainly present in the commercial movements of 1852 results of more importance than the others.

The exportation of tobacco is great from Cavallo to Constantinople and Smyrna, and with the facilities of steam navigation it cannot be doubted but that we shall hear of a still greater number of expeditions. In the course of time we would use this trading port in such an economical manner, that by the use of less steam-power the packets could be led to make the trips from Volo and other trading ports, and in communicating at the Dardanelles with the steamers of Salonica and Smyrna, two packets could be spared from the route from Dardanelles to Constantinople, and *vice versa*. We are obliged to render justice to the Ottoman Company, for although they now sustain several lines of packets without much pecuniary advantage to themselves, it is not the less true that those provinces which are thus placed in direct re-

lation with each other and with the capital will soon find their Commerce generally obtaining a greater extension, and sooner or later will prove beneficial to the gains of the company. In the same view, we would call attention to other lines to be formed, as much for the purposes of general commercial development as for their mission of civilization, which tend to bring into immediate contact all the varied population of the empire, not only with each other, but also with the capital.

But to complete our statistics of the Commerce of Thessaly and Macedon, we will conclude the notice by giving the price current, both of imports and exports, as existing in the trading ports of these provinces in 1851.

PRICE CURRENT.

	Piasters.		Piasters.
Commercial coffee, per oka...	7 a 7½	Linen cloth from Ireland, pce.	24 a 26
Black pepper.....	6 a 6½	Heavy cloth.....	45 a 50
Cochineal.....	75 a 80	Belgian cloth.....	32 a 45
Indigo, superior.....	95 a 100	German cloth.....	14 a 24
" Madras.....	50 a 55	Taffeta, plain.....	13 a 16
Cloves.....	14 a 15	" ornamented.....	12 a 17
Cinnamon.....	17 a 18	Gros-de-Naples silk, plain and	
Tin.....	13½ a 14	ornamented.....	17 a 25
American rum, by the gallon..	8 a 8½	Velvet.....	50 a 55
Dry leather, from Buenos Ayres	11 a 13	English shawls, each.....	7 a 34
" Alexandria..	4½ a 5	Ditto, fine ...	140 a 300
Semelle, from France.....	18 a 20	Belgian window glass, in boxes	
Incense, or scents.....	4 a 6½	100 feet square.....	90 a ..
Nutmeg.....	45 a 50	Tin, in two boxes.....	330 a 345
Timber of Pernambuco, q'ntal.	34 a 35	Pointes de Paris, per oka....	4½ a 4½
" St. Martha.....	120 a 130	Whitelead from Geneva and	
" Campeachy.....	180 a 185	Trieste, per two boxes....	140 a ..
Brimstone, from Trieste.....	60 a 65	(The kile of Salonica is equivalent to 4 kiles of Constantinople.)	
Sugar, crumpled.....	214 a 217	Wheat of Calamie, per kile	
" in loaf.....	220 a 225	Salonica.....	80 a 100
English iron, in bars & bundles.	40 a 44	Wheat of Nusquilles.....	70 a 75
Steel from Trieste, per qtnl...	220 a 225	Ditto, young.....	.. a ..
Lead in pigs.....	120 a 130	Barley, per kile.....	24 a 24
German vitriol.....	25 a 32	Maize.....	36 a 45
English ditto.....	25 a 32	Rye.....	35 a 40
Soap from Cannal.....	175 a 190	Sesame.....	120 a 130
" Mitylene.....	170 a 180	Grey pease, per oka.....	1½ a 1½
" Jaffa.....	200 a 215	Kidney-beans.....	1 a 1½
" Zante.....	170 a 180	Beans.....	20-40 a 25-40
Letter-paper from Trieste and		Lentilles.....	30-40 a 35-40
Germany.....	17 a 30	Rice.....	1½ a 2
French paper.....	22 a 110	Honey.....	2½ a 2½
Red caps from Geneva.....	110 a 120	Butter.....	7 a 7½
" Livour.....	120 a 140	Oil.....	5½ a 6
" Vienna.....	24 a 160	Olives.....	1 a 1½
" Constantinople.	180 a 220	Hazel-nuts.....	2 a 2½
Crockery of Geneva.....	1½ a ..	Red pepper.....	2½ a 2½
" England.....	10 a 30	Tobacco in leaf.....	4 a 7
" Trieste.....	7 a 8	Sheeps' wool.....	4½ a 5
Printed calico, English, piece .	40 a 110	Cotton in wool.....	6½ a 7
" Swiss.....	35 a 100	Yellow wax.....	23 a 25
American linen.....	28 a 80	Linseed.....	1½ a 1½
Madapolan, colored.....	40 a 50	Millet.....	30-40 a 1
" white.....	55 a 60	Silk from Salonica.....	130 a 100
Muslin of Vienna, piece.....	15 a 16	" Piedmont.....	280 a 300
" England.....	16 a 36	" Thessaly.....	160 a 170
" Switzerland.....	35 a 110		
Crape of Geneva & Lyons 2 ps.	130 a 140		

	Piasters.		Piasters.
Alum	3 a 6	Skins of lamb, each	3½ a ..
Ropes	4½ a 6½	“ sheep	8 a 9
Snuff	12 a 24	“ goat	2½ a 8
Leeches	470 a ..	“ hare, per oka	17 a 18
Ditto, fat, large	120 a ..	Wool carpet, per piece	6 a 11
Cow leeches	130 a ..	Sajak de monaster	2½ a 8
Skin of ox and cow	5 a 5½	Aba, per two pieces	110 a ..
Horse-hair bags	4½ a ..	Douelles, per thousand	825 a ..
Hemp	2½ a 2½	Woolen socks, packge of 10 pair ..	80 a ..
Animal bones, per qntl	12 a 16	Coats of Zagora, each	110 a ..

N. B.—The dollar is worth about twenty-eight piasters in good metallic currency of the Sultan; forty pares make one piaster; the oka is 2½ lbs. of our weight.

COMMERCE OF SAMSOON IN 1852.

After Trebizonde, one of the most important and commercial places of the Black Sea, on the Asiatic coast, is Samsoun. Its topographical position is well enough known to render it unnecessary to speak about it. In point of Commerce, Samsoun is the best port, and one the most favorable to the transit trade with the Asiatic provinces. Visited by all steamers which run on the line from Constantinople to Trebizonde, that place is the center of a Commerce of great extent.

In 1852, the imports amounted to 48,351,016 piasters, and the exports to 33,023,176 piasters. This amount, which is given with exactness, is shown in the details which we publish of a great variety of merchandise, imported and exported at Samsoun, almost altogether by steamers. In fact, the importations by Ottoman, Austrian, and English steamers have amounted—

	Piasters.
In merchandise, to	38,097,260
In money	8,001,756
	<hr/>
	46,109,016
The importation of merchandise by sailing vessels is limited to	2,242,000
And to 3 cargoes of salt under Ottoman flag; 3 cargoes of leeches from New Russia, under the Russian flag, amounting to	48,351,016
Also 1 cargo of iron under the Russian flag; and 3 cargoes of wine, oil, and soap, under the Greek flag.	

There also arrived 4 Ottoman vessels loaded with military effects, the valuation of which is not included, nor that of 3,692 packages of those same effects brought by steamers, to the sum of 48,351,016 piasters.

The exportation has been less than the importation. It amounted—

	Piasters.
By steamers, as shown in the detailed note, to	23,391,608
Cash, by the same steamers	9,231,568
	<hr/>
	32,623,176
By sailing vessels, there was sent only 800 bales of tobacco to Smyrna and Alexandria, to the amount of	400,000
	<hr/>
	33,023,176

It must be observed that in 1852, the corn crops having failed in the

province of Samsoun, there was no exportation. Generally, when the crop is successful, it is calculated that 250,000 killos of wheat, maize, barley, and oats, are annually exported from Samsoun, which might make the addition of 2,500,000 piasters.

The following is the detailed account of the goods imported and exported in 1852 by Ottoman, Austrian, and English steamers :—

IMPORTS.			
Designation of merchandise.	No. of pkgs.	Price. Piasters.	Total value. Piasters.
Coarse cloths.....	5,000	5,000	2,500,000
Steel	45	150	6,740
Aniseed	3	300	900
Fruits	11	300	3,300
Brandy	59	550	32,850
Whitelead	1	200	200
Beer	4	100	400
Tin plate	16	200	3,200
Coffee	1,402	680	841,200
Paper	341	2,500	852,500
Hardware	585	2,000	1,170,000
Cochineal	8	6,000	48,000
Ropes	8	240	1,920
Nails	50	240	12,000
Leather	60	1,000	60,000
Preserved fruits	20	200	4,000
Drugs	10	500	5,000
Cotton thread	177	5,000	885,000
Dry figs	10	200	2,000
Iron wire	12	1,000	12,000
Cheese	20	2,400	48,000
Red caps	80	7,000	560,000
Scythes	20	300	6,000
Iron implements.....	17	330	5,600
Henna.....	169	550	92,950
Indigo.....	21	7,200	151,200
Manufactures	7,436	3,300	24,538,800
Nuts	100	140	14,000
Medicines	85	500	425,000
Olives	15	90	1,350
Colors	16	200	3,000
Pepper	50	360	18,000
Furs	20	6,000	120,000
Skins	30	200	6,000
Rum.....	40	200	48,000
Military effects	3,692
Soap.....	648	285	194,680
Tin	40	300	12,000
Ammoniac	20	300	6,000
Snuff.....	69	1,000	69,000
Persian tobacco.....	97	550	53,350
Pottery	30	2,000	60,000
Dried grapes.....	20	200	4,000
Glassware	150	330	49,500
Pipe bowls	140	220	38,800
Foreign wine.....	16	550	8,800
Sugar	247	1,000	247,000
Various merchandise	1,675	3,000	5,025,000
	28,616		38,097,360

EXPORTS.

Designation of merchandise.	No. of pkgs.	Price. Piasters.	Total value. Piasters.
Lizaries	208	325	67,600
Pearl wheat.....	250	110	27,500
Butter	40	360	14,400
Gums	70	1,000	70,000
Silk cocoons.....	449	1,980	889,020
Cirisch	2,856	260	742,560
Ox horns.....	35	600	21,000
Buffalo horns.....	34	100	3,740
Leather	1,000	990	990,000
Wax.....	40	1,900	76,000
Punk	144	200	28,800
Flour	150	100	15,000
Yellow berries	1,882	1,000	1,882,000
Gum.....	98	683	66,934
Galls.....	130	550	71,500
Pack cloth.....	91	200	18,200
Vegetables.....	2,716	120	325,920
Teftik	78	600	46,800
Wool	40	300	12,000
Malep	305	400	146,000
Manufactures	246	4,000	984,000
Smoked meat	3,009	110	330,990
Apples.....	876	110	96,360
Goat skins	304	495	135,480
Pelisses	58	1,000	58,000
Sheep skins.....	100	400	40,000
Worked skins	200	400	80,000
Hare skins	8	200	1,600
Pig lead.....	592	150	88,800
Wrought copper	1,617	990	1,600,830
Copper in bars	6,118	400	2,472,400
Rice	50	82	4,100
Linen seed	1,613	78	125,814
Leeches	1,011	1,100	1,112,100
Silk.....	869	8,000	2,952,000
Aleppo stuffs	198	10,000	1,980,000
Tobacco	10,578	495	5,384,610
Carpets.....	6	2,000	12,000
Tallow	256	400	102,400
Salep	10	1,200	12,000
Valonia	30	150	4,500
Various merchandise	543	550	298,650
	*38,708		23,391,608

* The plaster of Turkey may be calculated at about four cents.

ART. II.—EXPERIMENTAL LEGISLATION ON THE OPIUM TRADE IN CHINA, AND ON THE LIQUOR TRADE OF THE UNITED STATES.

THE pursuit of happiness, that busies mankind under the influence of civilization, divides itself, in respect to means employed, into two great classes—one of which consists of appliances for the acquisition of wealth, and the other for the acquisition of political power. The last necessarily comprehends within itself more or less control of the first, but without partaking of its motive or results. But this intimacy of interests brings the two influences into very general co-operation, so that the earnest man in the pursuit of wealth becomes the coadjutor of the earnest man in the pursuit of political power.

The merchant feels a necessity for acting a part in politics, although he claims not to be a politician, nor in the remotest degree ambitious of public station. The politician, in turn, bows respectful compliances to the known wishes of the merchant, though not himself caring a fig, otherwise than as they bear upon political results, for navigation, Commerce, protection, free trade, or sailors' rights.

These general laws, that act upon the cupidity of men in the higher spheres of life we have particularly named, when the direction of a State, or nation, or empire, is sought by one, or the trade of a nation, or of several nations, is the subject of the other's ambition, are the same that pervade all the lower classes of politicians and tradespeople, until we reach the itinerant peddler, having all his stores in a small pack, and in like gradation reach the school district and ward politician, who fights in the election of a policeman, or constable, with as much zeal as Bonaparte fought the battle at Austerlitz.

The general impulses of conduct being thus very much the same everywhere among men, both in trade and in politics, their experience in each might be expected to end in the same lessons of wisdom the world over, be their experiments at innovation what they may.

And so their experience does end.

Whether we consult the politics of trade, or the trade of politics, as these have been developed in *China*, or in the United States, one and substantially the same controlling *moral* will be deduced, and forced upon our conviction, as an essential of enduring success. The Chinese have well defined this moral as "*the propriety of a needful accommodation to the circumstances of the times*," and elsewhere as "*turning the circumstances of the time to a profitable account*."

Men, writers, philosophers, merchants, and politicians may theorize, and moralize, and criticize, and spiritualize all they may, to make the world better, or to prove them bad, in their rules of conduct; and, after all has been done and said, the man of practical mind, who studies history, men, and things, religiously, philosophically, or politically, and with whatever aim or motive he may, will at last come back to this one doctrine of Chinese legislation, to which we have adverted, viz: "*the propriety of a needful accommodation to the circumstances of the times*," as the ruling lesson of wisdom to be observed in the framework of every project, law, and system of moral influence, that is designed to be useful, or effective and permanent. And whatever project, law, or system of appliances for the government of men lacks this feature, will prove a *failure*. In fact, in every attempt at legislative exertion of power, whether upon the scale of village interests, or of the

affairs of an empire, the necessity of "turning the circumstances of the time to a profitable account" must be recognized as a fundamental law, or it will force its way through mountains of disappointment and prostrated hopes to the recusant victim.

We do not say, for we do not believe, that the naked and bald immorality of the old woman, in the story, to her forth-going son, in the advice given him, to "get money, *honestly*, if you can, but be sure and get money," is to be countenanced, nor that it forms any kindred part of the older experience of our Chinese brotherhood. For, wherever the law of property exists for the protection of its acquisition, there the law of honesty must be an attendant "circumstance of the time" and place, and cannot be disregarded profitably. Hence the adage "Honesty is the best policy," in all its commonplace homeliness and simplicity, will be found the consistent help-maid of the Chinese teaching above quoted, and the true doctrine of every people and every individual.

The precipitate thinker may hastily conceive, nevertheless, that if we bring the business world down to the limited rule of action in life which we have stated, and seek guidance from no higher morality in human affairs than that of "turning the circumstances of the time to a profitable account" we have very little margin left for the teachings of either the schoolmaster or theologian, and our school-houses and churches might as well be converted at once into sale-shops and warehouses.

Not so—not so. But we do admit that schoolmasters and theologians may at once proclaim to their followers everywhere, that there is in truth no positive and true religion, *as such*, in either trade* or politics, and the less human legislation undertakes to prescribe or deal out *any* religion, in either politics or trade, the nearer it will approximate to that wisdom which insures permanency to whatever it enters into.

True religion, like the Sabbath, has its offices set apart from the secular affairs of life, as those of week days are distinguished from those of the Sabbath. It does not, therefore, follow, that the influences of the one impart no qualifying tone to the character of the other; nor that either would be secure without the other. The contrary hypothesis is demonstrable, if the observation of all mankind enjoying the lights of civilization and of a holy Sabbath did not prove it.

Then let the schoolmaster perform his office faithfully, in training the youthful mind of the nation to the lights of knowledge, which is ever pro-

* Of this truth, so far as trade is concerned, no more pointed demonstration is needed than is found in the unrighteous traffic of the British East India Company, which is the British government itself under another name, in the article of opium. Upon this irreligious aspect of the subject, the *Bombay Telegraph* remarks:—

"That a professedly Christian government should, by its sole authority, and on its own responsibility, produce a drug which is not only *contraband* but essentially detrimental to the best interests of humanity; that it should annually receive into its treasury scores of rupees, which, if they cannot, save by a too licentious figure, be termed "the price of blood," yet are demonstrably the fruit of the physical waste, the social wretchedness, and moral destruction of the Chinese; and yet that no substantial remonstrances from the press, secular or spiritual, nor from society, should issue forth against the unrighteous system, is surely an astonishing fact in the history of our Christian ethics."

"The enormous wealth it brings into our coffers is its only justification, the cheers of vice-enslaved wretches its only welcome; the curses of all that is moral and virtuous in an empire of 360 millions attend its introduction; the prayers of enlightened Christians deprecate its course, the indignation of all righteous minds is its only God-speed."

"It takes with it fire and sword, slaughter and death; it leaves behind it bankrupt fortunes, idiotized minds, broken hearts, and ruined souls. Foe to all the interests of humanity, hostile to the scanty virtues of earth, and warring against the overflowing benevolence of heaven; may we soon have to rejoice over its abolition." [See *Merchants' Magazine*, Feb. 1853, p. 264.]

While such a commentary is justified by the facts of the largest commercial operations of the world, it is folly to talk about religion as an element of the relations of trade.

gressive; and let the theologian, with equal earnestness, keep the religious sense of the nation awakened to the pleasures of a conscience void of offence, and to the hopes of a fitness for a bright and joyous immortality beyond the grave, and neither will lack busy employment in his sphere; and neither trade nor politics, under the influence of such teachings, will forget the law of honesty in seeking "what is called turning the circumstances of the time to a profitable account," though in the operation both schoolmaster and theologian be utterly forgotten.

The Chinese government, after more than a half century, at least, of fervent struggle, in the opposite direction, to exterminate a great moral evil, is now on the return to that wisdom of policy from which many States of this Union, first impelled by the example of Maine, seem now to be just taking their departure—a departure, we venture to prophesy, that will cost the people engaged in it, the same perpetual and fruitless struggle which the Chinese illusively have borne in vain.

It is a curious fact, that in these two opposite portions of the habitable globe, China and the United States, the same supposed moral evil and necessity has existed, to be overcome; and the same resort has been, or is now being made, for that end, to a system of legislation that wholly disregards the maxim of "turning the circumstances of the time to a profitable account." But in this particular, *now*, these experimenting nations differ, viz:—

China has made the trial, to her woful conviction of its insufficiency and uselessness; whereas the States alluded to, of this Union, unwilling to learn from the sad experience of China, or ignorant of it, are persisting in going through the same process of forcible execution of its polity, regardless of a "needful accommodation to the circumstances of the times."

Search through man's history, and it will be found that love of power, and love of wealth, or of property, are passions of the human breast that have ever been most subservient and ready to pander to all the other passions that beset and weaken humanity. They are the servile jackalls of human depravity, and they are ever ready to be suborned to the indulgence of any appetite, whether carnal or gastronomic; and hence constitute the gateways to danger, where wisdom in legislation should point all its watchful and measured influences. Regulate to rightful results man's love of wealth and love of power, (or of position over his fellow man,) and you will have the curb that will hold in check his every other proclivity to error, folly, or crime. We assert this as the general law of human conduct, to which, of course, there will be exceptions, as there will be to every rule and proposition in life.

The passion, or state of mind and body, excited by the use of intoxicating liquids, or drugs, is of the easiest, and therefore of the most universal, indulgence, of all that beset man in the social world. Hence are the means of its enjoyment made the subject of universal traffic, whether in the form of drugs, or of distilled liquids; and therefore create a necessity for laws to regulate the uses, and punish the abuses of this species of trade, the world over. The love of gain exerted through this trade, and the love of political power exerted through this legislation, are thus brought into immediate play upon these agencies, in different parts of the world, and display themselves adversely to each other, or act conjunctively, according to the practical wisdom that prevails at the time.

Hitherto, in China, they have been acting adversely to each other; while

in the United States there has been more of conjunctive action between them. Now, the exact reverse of this is taking place, and an antagonistic struggle between the love of political power and the love of gain is being witnessed in the United States: while, in China, the two influences are tending to a harmony of action for a common end, or result.

In China, the desolating evils of intemperance and intoxication have been produced by *smoking* and *eating* excessive quantities of *opium*.

In the United States, the same great evil has been produced by drinking to excess intoxicating liquors—*rum*, *brandy*, *gin*, *whisky*, &c.

All readers are familiar with the statistics of poverty, crime, suffering, disease and death, which are exhibited in the reports of Town, County, State and National Temperance Societies, and Watchmen's Clubs, existing under different names in the United States, to portray the horrible ravages of the habits of intemperance that have prevailed among the people. It is therefore quite unnecessary that we repeat them now.

But in China the ravages of the same indulgence, by means of opium, are no less authenticated and no less frightful to contemplate, but are probably less well known to the people generally in the United States. A correspondent of this magazine (vol. xxiii., p. 33) thus describes, in general terms, the impoverishing and desolating effects of it:—

The expenses attending this habit are very great—so great that in most instances it regulates the quantity used, each one consuming as much as he can possibly command means to obtain. Mr. Smith, of the Church Missionary Societies, whilst visiting the opium-smoking shops at Amoy, questioned ten persons, indiscriminately, as he met them, most of whom were laborers, as to the formation, effects, expense of the habit, &c. Five of these individuals consumed a mace, or sixty grains, daily, and it cost them, on an average, two-thirds of their daily earnings to purchase the article! This fact shows how amazingly expensive is the habit, and what a fearfully impoverishing effect it must have upon all those who, for any length of time, give themselves up to the vice. Besides, it is calculated by Mr. Martin, and other writers well acquainted with the evil, and competent to form a correct judgment in the matter as other individuals that can be found, that the victims of this vice do not live, on an average, more than ten years after they have once given way to the habit. It brings on a train of diseases, which make rapid work of destruction on all the vital organs of the body. By means of this vice, then, according to the above data, and estimating the number of opium smokers at 4,000,000, more than 400,000 human beings in China find annually a premature grave! What other vice, in the whole history of the world, ever produced such appalling ravages on human life?

It may not be uninteresting to many readers to quote from another article of the same able correspondent of this magazine alluded to above, (vol. xxiii., p. 149, &c.) the following further details of the horrors of the uses of opium in China:—

A distinguished Chinese scholar, in a memorial to the emperor, says: "Opium is a poisonous drug, brought from foreign countries; and, when the poison takes effect, the habit becomes fixed, and the sleeping smokers are like corpses—lean and haggard as demons." He proceeds to illustrate, in detail, its effect, under these heads: it exhausts the animal spirits; impedes the regular performance of business; wastes the flesh and blood; dissipates every kind of property; renders the person ill favored; promotes obscenity; discloses secrets; violates the laws; attacks the vitals, and destroys life. Another Chinese, (holding a high office in government) speaking of opium smokers, remarks that "when the habit becomes inveterate, it is necessary to smoke at *certain fixed hours*. Time is consumed, men's duties are forgotten, and they can no longer live without this poison. Its

symptoms are difficulty of breathing, chalky paleness, discolored teeth, and a withered skin. People perceive that it hurries them to destruction, but it leaves them without spirit to desist." Another government officer writes to Sir Henry Pottinger, that "opium is an article whose flowing poison spreads like flames. It is neither pulse nor grain, yet multitudes of our Chinese subjects consume it, wasting their property and destroying their lives; and the calamities arising therefrom are unutterable! How is it possible to refrain from forbidding our people to use it?" In another state paper this evil is described by one of the emperor's ministers as "a fearful, desolating pestilence, pervading all classes of people, wasting their property, enfeebling their mental faculties, ruining their bodies, and shortening their lives."

Dr. G. H. Smith, who resided some years as a surgeon at Penang, describes the effect of opium smoking, in the *Medico-Chirurgical Review* for April, 1842, as follows:—"The hospitals and poor-houses are chiefly filled with opium smokers. In one that I had the charge of, the inmates averaged sixty daily; five-sixths of whom were smokers of Chandoo. The baneful effects of this habit on the human constitution are conspicuously displayed by stupor, forgetfulness, general deterioration of all the mental faculties, emaciation, debility, sallow complexion, lividness of lips and eyelids, languor and lack-lustre of eye, appetite either destroyed or depraved. In the morning these creatures have a most wretched appearance, evincing no symptoms of being refreshed or invigorated by sleep, however profound. There is a remarkable dryness or burning in the throat, which urges them to repeat the opium smoking. If the dose be not taken at the usual time, there is great prostration, vertigo, torpor, and discharge of water from the eye. If the privation be complete, a still more formidable train of phenomena take place. Coldness is felt over the whole body, with aching pains in all parts. Diarrhea occurs; the most horrid feelings of wretchedness come on; and if the poison be withheld, death terminates the victim's existence."

In the *London Lancet*, for 1841, we find these observations, from James Hill, a surgeon of an English ship which visited China in 1839:—"The habitual use of opium, as practiced by the Chinese, cannot fail to produce the most injurious effects upon the constitution. The peculiar languid and vacant expression, the sallow and shrivelled countenance, the dim and sunken eye, and the general emaciated and withered appearance of the body, easily distinguish the confirmed opium smoker. The mind likewise soon participates in the general wreck of the body; and the unhappy individual, losing all relish for society, remains in a state of sottish indifference to everything around him but the deadly drug, now his only solace, which sooner or later hurries its victim to an untimely grave." Such is the testimony of two medical observers, whose education and professional duties gave them superior advantages for judging correctly of the effects of this drug.

Mr. R. M. Martin, who is well known as the author of several valuable works on India and the British Colonies, has recently published a large work on China. Mr. Martin for some time held the situation of her "Majesty's Treasurer for Colonial, Consular, and Diplomatic Services in China," and was also a "Member of Her Majesty's Legislative Council at Hong Kong." His opportunities, therefore, of acquiring information, official and by observation, were superior, and in a chapter on this subject, vol. ii., p. 176, he remarks thus:—"No language would convey a description of the sufferings of those to whom opium has become a necessary part of existence; no picture could impress the fearful misery which the inmates of an opium-smoking shop exhibit. Those dens of human suffering are attended by unfortunate women—as opium in the early use is aphrodisiac, and as such prized by the Chinese. In few, but very few instances, if indeed in any, moderation in opium is exercised; once fairly begun, there is no cessation, until poverty and death ensue; and when digestion has nearly ceased, and deglutition even becomes painful, the utmost effect of the drug is merely to mitigate the horrors of existence. Those who begin its use at twenty, may expect to die at thirty years of age; the countenance becomes pallid, the eyes assume a wild brightness, the memory fails, the gait totters, mental exertion and moral courage sink, and a frightful marasmus or atrophy reduces the victim to a ghastly spec-

toe, who has ceased to live before he has ceased to exist. There is no slavery so complete as that of the opium taker; once habituated to his dose as a factitious stimulant, everything will be endured rather than the privation; and the unhappy being endures all the mortification of a consciousness of his own degraded state, while ready to sell wife and children, body and soul, for the continuance of his wretched and transient delight; transient indeed, for at length the utmost effect produced is a temporary suspension of agony; and finally no dose of the drug will remove or relieve a state of suffering which it is utterly impossible to describe. The pleasurable sensations and imaginative ideas arising at first soon pass away; they become fainter and fainter, and at last entirely give place to horrid dreams and appalling pictures of death; specters of fearful visage haunt the mind; the light which once seemed to emanate from heaven is converted into the gloom of hell; sleep, balmy sleep has fled forever; night succeeds day only to be clothed with never-ending horrors; incessant sickness, vomiting, diarrhea, and total cessation of digestive functions ensue; and death at length brings, with its annihilation of the corporeal structure, the sole relief to the victim of sensual and criminal indulgence. The opium shops which I visited in the East, were perfect types of hell upon earth."

Lord Jocelyn, who was engaged as a military secretary in the campaign of 1840, thus adverts to the use of opium as witnessed at Singapore:—"One of the streets in the center of the town is wholly devoted to shops for the sale of this poison; and here, in the evening, may be seen, after the labors of the day are over, crowds of Chinese, who seek these places to satisfy their depraved appetites. The rooms where they sit and smoke are surrounded by wooden couches, with places for the head to rest upon, and generally a side-room is devoted to gambling. The pipe is a reed of about an inch in diameter, and the aperture in the bowl for the admixture of opium, is not larger than a pin's head. The drug is prepared with some kind of conserve, and a very small portion is sufficient to charge it, one or two whiffs being the utmost that can be inhaled from a single pipe, and the smoke is taken into the lungs as from the hookah in India. On a beginner, one or two pipes will have an effect, but an old stager will continue smoking for hours. At the head of each couch is placed a small lamp, as fire must be held to the drug during the process of smoking; and from the difficulty of filling and properly lighting the pipe there is generally a person who waits upon the smoker to perform that office. A few days of this fearful luxury, when taken to excess, will give a pale and haggard look to the face; and a few months, or even weeks, will change the strong and healthy man into a little better than an idiot skeleton. The pains they suffer when deprived of the drug, after long habit, no language can describe; and it is only when to a certain degree under its influence that their faculties are alive. In those houses devoted to their ruin, these infatuated people may be seen at nine o'clock in the evening in all the different stages. Some entering, half distracted, to feed the craving appetite they have been obliged to subdue during the day; others laughing and talking wildly under the effects of a first pipe, whilst the couches round are filled with their different occupants, who lie languid, with an idiot smile upon their countenance, too much under the influence of the drug to care for passing events, and fast emerging to the wished-for consummation. The last scene in this tragic play is generally a room in the rear of the building, a species of dead-house, where lie stretched those who have passed into the state of bliss which the opium smoker madly seeks—an emblem of the long sleep to which he is blindly hurrying."

Such is the testimony of two officers holding important trusts under the English government, as to the pernicious effects of this practice among the Chinese; and we might add many similar statements from travelers and other residents in China, but deem it unnecessary.

In view of these facts, the question naturally arises, what has China done to oppose the introduction, or arrest the progress of such evils? Has she ever, as a government, adopted any decided, systematic measures to prevent them?

Prior to the year 1800, opium was included in the tariff of maritime duties, under the head of medicinal drugs, and was treated by government as an article intended exclusively for medical purposes; and the duty exacted upon its impor-

tation was a mere nominal sum, without any particular reference to raising a revenue. But the practice of *smoking* the "*vile dirt*" had already taken deep root, and its evil effects were beginning to awaken the attention of the Chinese government. In 1799, one of the emperor's chief ministers, "fearing lest the practice of smoking opium should spread among all the people of the inner land, to the waste of their time and the destruction of their property," presented a memorial requesting that the sale of the drug should be prohibited, and that offenders should be made amenable to punishment. Soon after this, the Chinese government enacted special laws to prevent both its importation and its use, denouncing upon the seller and smoker of the poison the bastinado, the wooden collar, imprisonment, banishment, and the entire confiscation of his property; yea, even more, the severe penalty of capital punishment, either by public decapitation or strangulation.

The same writer remarks, p. 153:—

That the Chinese government has always been earnest and sincere in resisting the introduction of opium, there can be no doubt. Their laws prove this fact, and such is the testimony of all disinterested foreigners residing in China. Says a writer in the Chinese Repository, for 1840, p. 416:—"The opposition of the Chinese government to the opium trade has been steady and strong during a period of forty years; the prohibitions have been as clear and as explicit, and the measures to carry them into effect as constant and vigorous, as the combined wisdom and power of the emperor and his ministers could make them."

The Chinese government expressly forbids by law the cultivation of the poppy within its territory, although both soil and climate are admirably fitted for its production.

But all the laws and prohibitions hitherto enacted against this trade by China, have proved abortive.* They have, nevertheless, been adhered to, and the trade still kept contraband, by which means the whole consumption is paid for in silver by the Chinese population, instead of by an interchange of commercial exports, which would take place were the trade legalized. The extent of sacrifice, in the form of drainage of the country of its precious metals, thus made by the government, rather than yield its opposition to the traffic, may be gathered from the fact that the consumption in the single year of 1848-9 amounted to \$34,750,800, and the consumption is yearly increasing.

Such an expenditure to uphold a prohibitory law, which is proving a constant failure, has no parallel under any Christian government or among any Christian people on the face of the globe. It puts far and deep into the shade all the sacrifices made, or that ever will be made in the United States, to support any system of prohibitory laws that have been or shall be devised for the cause of temperance.

The self-sacrificing spirit that has marked the policy of the Chinese government for a half century, regardless of the maxim of "turning the circumstances of the time to a profitable account," is also beautifully illustrated by an answer of the emperor, when on one occasion he was urged to derive a revenue from the importation of the drug, in view of the impracticability of stopping its illegal introduction among his people. His answer was as follows:—

* The *National Intelligencer* (Washington) of May 19, 1853, says: "As a proof of the severe nature of the laws on this subject, an American vessel, in the year 1807, had to pay a fine of \$30,000 for an attempt to smuggle only five pounds of opium, which one of the seamen brought from Whampoa in a jar, and was detected by a custom-house officer, as he landed from the boat opposite to the factories at Canton."

It is true, I cannot prevent the introduction of the flowery poison—gainseeking and corrupt men will, for profit and sensuality, defeat my wishes; but nothing will induce me to derive a revenue from the vice and misery of my people.

Here, then, are fifty years of exertion and of experience in all possible forms, and with all legislative power to forcibly exclude and extinguish a vice which has its home in the human passions. It has been attended by yet other evidences than we have adverted to, but in vain, of sincere determination in upholding the inhibitory policy.

To present our subject intelligibly, we copy from the same source as above, the further history of the Chinese proceeding in this matter, as follows:—

In the years 1809–15–20–30, and 34, edicts, one after another, were sent to Whampoa, Macao, and Canton, proclaiming these laws, and not unfrequently the severest penalties were inflicted upon such Chinese subjects as violated them. Notwithstanding all this, the trade kept constantly increasing. In 1838 it amounted to between 39,000 and 40,000 chests. The emperor, finding that the measures thus far employed had failed to check the traffic, after consulting his ministers, determined to depute an Imperial Commissioner to Canton, clothed with the highest powers and authority. The officer chosen for this purpose was Lin, a man distinguished for his talents, acquirements, and knowledge of maritime affairs. Lin arrived at Canton in March, 1839, and immediately gave orders that all the opium, whether stored in the factories or on board of ships in the harbor, should be at once surrendered. He succeeded in compelling the merchants to give up 20,000 chests, and to sign a bond that they would forever cease trading in the article. These 20,000 chests of opium were publicly destroyed in the vicinity of Canton, according to the commands of the emperor. This bold measure of Lin to suppress the traffic led to a war between England and China, commonly called the “opium war.”

The war was not of long continuance. The Chinese, finding themselves soon overpowered by British arms, and their country being rapidly brought into subjection to foreign power, were ready to receive proposals of peace on almost any terms. The leading articles of treaty proposed by the English plenipotentiary were: The Chinese government to pay the English twenty-one millions of dollars before the expiration of three years; twelve being for the expenses of the war, three for debts due English merchants, and six for the opium destroyed. Five of the principal cities of China, namely: Amoy, Canton, Ningpo, Shanghai, Fughchan, to be thrown open to British trade and residence, under such restrictions as shall be satisfactory, and the island of Hong Kong to be ceded outright, and forever, to the queen of England. The Chinese endeavored to introduce into the articles of agreement a prohibition of all traffic in, or importation of opium, but failed in the attempt. So that this subject, as far as any restriction or discontinuance was concerned on the part of the English government, was left, after the war, precisely where it was before. But it was far otherwise with China. Five of her chief seaports being now freely opened for general trade and commercial intercourse, afforded still greater facilities, and gave a more permanent foothold than ever for the opium traffic. The Canton Circular of 1846, speaking of the high price which the drug brought at that time, very significantly remarked: “We need not ask the question who has been chiefly benefited by the war in China, justly called the opium war.”

Besides these five cities being thrown open to foreign trade, the island of Hong Kong, possessing one of the best harbors in the world, and easily accessible to any part of the Chinese coast, became, after the war, the sole property of the English government. This place was selected as a great depot for trade, and a large amount of money has been expended here for public improvements, such as roads, wharves, buildings, &c. Opium constitutes here one of the principal articles of Commerce. Besides numerous shops and stores, several large re-

ceiving ships are stationed the year round in the harbor. In 1845 an important event occurred here in the history of the trade, namely: Gov. Davis licensed the public sale of the drug by retail. Mr. Martin, one of the Executive Council, expressing his dissent, says, afterwards: "Twenty opium-shops have been licensed in Hong Kong, within gunshot of the Chinese empire, where such an offense is death! Hong Kong has now, therefore, been made the lawful *opium smoking-shop*, where the most sensual, dissolute, degraded, and depraved of the Chinese may securely perpetrate crimes which degrade men far below the level of the brute, and revel in a vice which destroys body and soul; which has no parallel in its fascinating seduction, in its inexpressible misery, or in its appalling ruin. When the governor proposed the conversion of Hong Kong into a legalized opium-shop, under the assumed license of our most gracious and religious sovereign, I felt bound, as a sworn member of her majesty's Council in China, to endeavor to dissuade him from this great crime; but no reasoning would induce him to follow the noble example of the emperor of China, who, when urged to derive a revenue from the importation of opium, thus righteously recorded his sentiments in an answer which would have been worthy of a Christian monarch: '*It is true, I cannot prevent the introduction of the flowery poison—gain-seeking and corrupt men will, for profit and sensuality, defeat my wishes; but nothing will induce me to derive a revenue from the vice and misery of my people.*' But money was deemed of more consequence in Hong Kong than morality; it was determined, in the name of her majesty, to sell the permission to the highest bidder by public auction—of the exclusive right to poison the Chinese in Hong Kong—and to open a given number of opium smoking-shops, under the protection of the police, for the commission of this appalling vice. Would we have acted thus towards France or Russia, and established a smuggling depot on their shores in a prohibited and terrific poison? We dare not. Why, then, should we legalize and protect this dreadful traffic on an island given to us by the government of China as a residence and for commercial intercourse?"

With these authenticated facts before us, how can we say that China has made a less constant, a less expensive, a less vigorous, a less persevering effort—by forcible means, and arbitrary legislation, and severe penalties—to annihilate the use of intoxicating agencies in her dominions, than Maine, Massachusetts, Vermont, and the other States of this Union are using, or proposing to use? Will these States ever equal China in the power of means employed, in the opportunity of success, in the desperation of effort felt to be necessary? *And has China failed?*

The writer above quoted, says:—

The war, instead of exterminating or even checking this evil, has actually afforded greater facilities for its extension. The number of chests of opium imported into China has continued to increase every year, until now (1850) they amount to 60,000 chests, estimated to be worth over \$40,000,000—a sum greater by one-half than is paid by that great empire on the whole imports from all other nations. New market places for the sale of the drug are opening every year along the coast, up the rivers, and far into the interior of the country.

Such is the result of reliance upon legislation, employing destructive force and the "pulley system" of law and extreme arbitrary punishment, for the restraint of a moral evil, for the correction of a human passion.

The drug has been smuggled into that country for more than fifty years, in face of wholesome laws, earnest remonstrances, and severe threatenings, and the direful effects on the inhabitants of China.

The immoral tendency of this forcible system of inhibitory laws, and the certainty of its ultimate abandonment, is thus described in the *Missionary Herald* of June, 1850:—

The contraband trade in opium induces a disregard of all law, and leads to smuggling in other articles; it raises up and encourages a set of miscreants and pirates along the coast; it gives rise to constant strife between the revenue officers and the smugglers, the former of whom keep a vigilant oversight of every entrance, not so much to prevent its coming as to collect fees for allowing it to pass; it tends to destroy all moral rectitude, and strengthens habits of vice both among the people and the government officers. Its use, as well as its abuse, destroys property, health, intellect, and life. The importation during the past year has probably equalled eight millions of pounds, and this year it will perhaps exceed that amount. The Chinese government has given up its efforts to retard its use, winks at the cultivation of the poppy, is obliged to connive at the bribery of its revenue officers; and many persons think that the trade will be legalized at the coming of a new emperor to the throne. In a national and commercial point of view, such a step would be desirable.

Since the date of the last extract, a new emperor has succeeded, and now the State advisers are pressing the expediency of abolishing the prohibitory laws and making the trade legal, and imposing upon it a suitable duty. The *Pekin Gazette* of the 14th of December, 1852, contains the report of Woo Ting-roo, a member of the Board of War, and Inspector of Peking, decidedly in favor of legalizing the trade. This report says:—

It may probably be said that opium has long been a bane of the country, and that this bane can never be extirpated, if a duty be imposed on it by law. But let it be remembered, that the great interests of the empire must always be looked at in their entire and comprehensive aspect, and of anything implicating them the evil and advantage must be fairly weighed; if two balancing advantages be presented, the greater must be chosen, and where two contrasting evils stand in the way, the worse must be removed. Now, if the evil complained of could indeed be struck at the root, none would regret the loss to government of the millions of taels of annual revenue which might have been derived from its existence. But the fact is, that in late times every seaport and every inland transit toll has been a thoroughfare to illicit traders, who have paid fees for the passage of opium amounting to enormous sums of money, all of which have gone to swell the ill-gotten gains of men without a title to them. The returns have been made under the heads of *glass and broken glass, white and brown birds' nests, black and green tea, white and black cloth*—these being pseudonyms of the drug. The laws of the country have thus been turned to serve for the profit of rogues; while stringent prohibitions were publicly declared, private perquisites were drawn from the infraction of them. Under an administration assumed to be just and effective, how could such practices be tolerated?

To carry into effect beneficial innovations is a grand prerogative of the sovereign. It was anciently said: "When a matter has come to extremity, there must be a change; when the change is decreed, it must be carried into effect, and the method of doing this must be such as to insure its permanent action. The omens showing that heaven favors the design, advantage (to mankind) is certain to follow." Now, in the economy of the universe, there is in operation a law of perpetual progress, to which no limit is set. New agencies brought into action, even the ruler of the empire must shape his conduct to conform with them; he cannot forcibly control them.

Of old, Shun disliked varnished furniture, and Yu was averse to sweet wine; but, to the present time, the use of neither the wine nor the varnish has been discontinued, and we have not heard that any of the evils afflicting the world are attributable to them. Again, the former Ming dynasty interdicted tobacco, whereas now from that article is derived a main branch of the revenue. Also, at the commencement of our own reigning line, a prohibition was placed on wine, but the duty thereon now amounts to hundreds of thousands. These are all examples of the propriety of a needful accommodation to the circumstances of the times.

When a sweeping denunciation is brought against opium, because amongst the consumers of it there are many whom it induces to neglect their affairs, and in whom it occasions disease, it is forgotten that, with any of the gifts of nature, suffering ensues upon excess. Rain and wind, heat and cold, eating and drinking, intercourse between man and woman—which of these things may not be abused? But the wise use everything in due measure. Now opium is, in fact, a medicine, whose properties are to stimulate the nerves, stop diarrhea, and neutralize the effects of malaria. In the *Materia Medica* of Le She-chin, who lived towards the close of the Ming dynasty, it is called *a-foo-yung*, and respecting it, it is stated that if its use be long continued, a dose at length requires to be taken at regular intervals. Previous to the reign of Kien-lung it was classed in the customs tariff as a medicine. After the opium had passed the custom-house, having paid the duty, it was delivered to Hong merchants, who bartered for it tea and other commodities. The population along the whole coast depended, in a great degree, for their subsistence on the profits of the trade.

In the commencement of the reign of Kea-king, the penalties for opium-smoking were merely exposure in the cangue and flogging. Afterwards, when they were made more severe, the barbarian merchants sold it clandestinely, and stored it to command the market, amassing great gains; and thenceforth the silver from our central land began to depart, never to return.

From the first establishment of the severe system the evils produced by it gradually became greater, and exceeded all previously known. In brigandage upon the public roads, bribery of officials, and extortion by their underlings, opium was a constantly employed pretext. It was even made a practice to convey it secretly to some spot, in order that it might form the subject of a false accusation, the sequel of which would be free plunder on pretense of seizure of it. Since it was a matter involving the most serious consequences to the local Mandarins, they would beforehand give guaranties of the non-existence of the article within their jurisdictions, and afterwards their only course was to conceal it to the utmost of their power. Moreover, the unprincipled functionaries of small districts would often employ it as a means of extortion, and the innocent people were thereby subjected to very grievous oppressions—a thing which certainly would occasion concern to your sacred majesty. The salt smuggling in Hoonan and Ganhwuy, the piracy in Fuhkien and Kwangtung, and the perpetually recurring brigandage in Kiang-se, Kiang-nan, Che-kiang, Ganhwuy, Hoonan, Chihle, and Shangtung, have all, in a chief degree, had their origin in plundering upon the pretext of searching for opium. If the imposition of a duty on the article can be brought about, the evil disposed will be deprived of an important auxiliary in the accomplishment of their nefarious plans.

The connivance of the officials at the cultivation of the poppy is thus described by Woo TING-POO :—

But, further, since the native resources of the land have begun to be developed, that in which they consist ought not to be expelled from it. The provinces of Funkien, Kwangtung, Che-kiang, Shangtung, Yunnan, Kweichow, and others, have in all of them land devoted to the illicit production of opium. Now, the cultivation of the poppy does not in any way interfere with that of the five cereal grains. In districts of a warm climate, when the late harvest of the ninth month is gathered in, they plant the poppy, and by the next spring it has bloomed and ripened; being then cut, the matter is concluded, and the early grain is sown, which is reaped in autumn. Your minister has heard that in Wan-chow Foo and Tai-chow Foo (in Che-kiang) every year at the period between spring and summer the Sub-Prefect and Assistant Sub-Prefect are sent to cut down the poppies. The orders given to that effect, being a mere form, the deputed officers merely proceed to the various villages, and remain in their neighborhood about a month, when, having received their fees, they report the business as finished, and the cultivators continue undisturbed, as before. When such a system prevails in one province, other provinces cannot be ignorant of the existence of it. As to the illegal traffic in the drug in Yunnan and Kweichow, it is car-

ried on by thousands, openly, even in the provincial capitals, and the authorities, civil and military, do not venture to say anything about the matter. Indeed, the cause of the prosperous state of Yunnan is that its native-grown opium is abundant, and the drain of specie proportionately inconsiderable.

The opium grown in China, it is said, may be eaten without injury. Its price corresponds with that of other opium, and great profits are realized by the traffic in it. Since at present it pays no duty, it wastefully enriches the private pockets of officials; a circumstance much to be lamented.

The natural productions of the rivers and mountains fall by right to the disposal of the sovereign; and to him it belongs to tax the produce of the cultivated soil, and to assess the profits of traders. Now, of the multifarious commodities which enter at and are exported from the ports along the coast, and pass through the inland tolls on the highways, all yield their regulated impost. In the one article of opium alone, of which the consumption is so great, it is, on the contrary, permitted to carry on an illicit traffic, no revenue being drawn from it. And to such a pass are matters brought by this that functionaries of government and learned scholars are the responsible agents for smuggling the drug. Surely it is not thus that an example of respect to the law and maintenance of national dignity is displayed.

Inasmuch as general commerce with the barbarians is a means of conciliating them, the imposition of a duty on opium would be like a rein for keeping them in check; and it would indeed be precisely what is called *turning the circumstances of the time to profitable account*. Your minister has often heard, from men who have held office in Kwangtung, that England is a small island on the furthest verge of the ocean, and that from the traffic in opium it gradually became rich and strong. Subsequently it gained possession of various small foreign countries, such as Bengal, Madras, Bombay, and Java, all producing the drug, whereby it added to its wealth and power. Continuing by degrees to grow richer, at length it emulates *Yey-lang* in pride and assumption. From the opening of the ports to the present time the proceeds of the clandestine trade have amounted annually to hundreds of millions. If now a duty be imposed, there will be deducted one in every ten, one hundred in every thousand; and thus we shall, by openly inviting their intercourse, allay their suspicions, and cause a diversion in our favor without their perceiving it. Moreover, the native resources of the country being developed, the export of money abroad will diminish in the natural course of things; native-grown opium daily becoming more abundant, there will be less demand for foreign opium; the quantity will gradually dwindle away; at last there will be none, and Chinese traitors will then be deprived of wherewithal to support their vocation. The productions of barbarian countries being, with the exception of opium, very limited, the fountain of our prosperity daily swelling higher, the fountain of theirs will daily subside; it will be needless for us to deprive them of it by force, for, in verity, it will of itself depart from them. Sun Tze said, "There is the subjection of the enemy, without the fighting of soldiers;" which truly describes the proper method of dealing with the article under consideration.

In 1836 another official urged upon the Emperor the same policy of a change of the inhibitory system of laws, for one legalizing and regulating it:—

Heu Naetse, Vice President of the Sacrificial Court, presents the following memorial in regard to opium, to show that the more severe the interdicts against it are made, the more widely do the evils arising therefrom spread; and that it is right urgently to request that a change be made in the arrangements respecting it; to which end he earnestly entreats his sacred Majesty to cast a glance hereon, and to issue secret orders for a faithful investigation of the subject. * * *

It is said the daily increase of opium is owing to the negligence of officers in enforcing the interdicts? The laws and enactments are the means which extortionate underlings and worthless vagrants employ to benefit themselves; and the more complete the laws are, the greater and more numerous are the bribes paid

to the extortionate underlings, and the more subtle are the schemes of such worthless vagrants. In the first year of Taoukwang, the Governor of Kwangtung and Kwangse, Yuen, proceeded with all the rigor of the law against Ye Hangshoo, head of the opium establishment at Macao. The consequence was, that foreigners, having no one with whom to place their opium, proceeded to Lintin to sell it. This place is within the precincts of the provincial government, and has a free communication by water on all sides. Here are constantly anchored seven or eight large ships, in which the opium is kept, and which are therefore called "receiving ships." At Canton there are brokers of the drug who are called "melters." These pay the price of the drug into the hands of the resident foreigners, who give them orders for the delivery of the opium from the receiving ships. There are carrying boats plying up and down the river, and these are vulgarly called "*fast crabs*" and "*scrambling dragons*." They are well armed with guns and other weapons, and are manned with some scores of desperadoes, who ply their oars as if they were wings to fly with. All the custom-houses and military posts which they pass are largely bribed. If they happen to encounter any of the armed cruising boats, they are so audacious as to resist, and slaughter and carnage ensue. The late Governor Loo, on one occasion, having directed the Commodore Tsin Yuchang to co-operate with Teen Poo, the district magistrate of Heangshean, they captured Leang Heenee with a boat containing opium to the amount of 14,000 catties. The number of men killed and taken prisoners amounted to several scores. He likewise inflicted the penalty of the law on the criminals Yaouhow and Owkwun, (both of them being brokers,) and confiscated their property. This shows that faithfulness in the enforcement of the laws is not wanting, and yet the practice cannot be checked. The dread of the laws is not so great on the part of the common people as is the anxious desire of gain, which incites them to all manner of crafty devices; so that sometimes, indeed, the law is rendered wholly ineffective.

There are also, both on the rivers and at sea, banditti, who, with pretence of acting under the orders of the government, and of being sent to search after and prevent the smuggling of opium, seek opportunities for plundering. When I was lately placed in the service of your Majesty as acting Judicial Commissioner at Canton, cases of this nature were very frequently reported. Out of these arose a still greater number of cases, in which money was extorted for the ransom of plundered property. Thus a countless number of innocent people were involved in suffering. All these wide-spread evils have arisen since the interdicts against opium were published. * * * * *

Does any one suggest a doubt that to remove the existing prohibitions will detract from the dignity of government? I would ask if he is ignorant that the pleasures of the table and of the nuptial couch may also be indulged in to the injury of health? Nor are the invigorating drugs *footze* and *wootow* devoid of poisonous qualities; yet it has never been heard that any one of these has been interdicted. Besides, the removal of the prohibitions refers only to the vulgar and common people, those who have no official duties to perform. So long as the officers of government, the scholars, and the military are not included, I see no detriment to the dignity of government. And by allowing the proposed importation and exchange of the drug for other commodities, more than ten millions of money will annually be prevented from flowing out of the central land. On which side, then, is the gain, on which the loss? It is evident at a glance. But if we still idly look back and delay to retrace our steps, foolishly paying regard to a matter of mere empty dignity, I humbly apprehend that when eventually it is proved impossible to stop the importation of opium, it will then be found that we have waited too long, that the people are impoverished, and their wealth departed. Should we then begin to turn round, we shall find that reform comes too late.

Though but a servant of no value, I have by your Majesty's condescending favor been raised from a subordinate censorship to various official stations, both at court and in the region south of the great mountains, (Kwangtung.) Ten years spent in endeavors to make some return have produced no fruit; and I find myself overwhelmed with shame and remorse. But with regard to the great ad-

vantages, or great evils, of any place where I have been, I have never failed to make particular inquiries. Seeing that the prohibitions now in force against opium serve but to increase the prevalence of the evil, and that there is none found to represent the facts directly to your Majesty, and feeling assured that I am myself thoroughly acquainted with the real state of things, I dare no longer forbear to let them reach to your Majesty's ear. Prostrate I beg my august sovereign to give secret directions to the Governor and Lieutenant-Governor of Kwangtung, together with the Superintendent of Maritime Customs, that they faithfully investigate the character of the above statements, and that, if they find them really correct, they speedily prepare a list of regulations adapted to a change in the system, and present the same for your Majesty's final decision. Perchance this may be found adequate to stop further oozing out of money, and to replenish the national resources. With inexpressible awe and trembling fear I reverently present this memorial and await your Majesty's commands.

What China has experienced in this matter, and is now about to improve upon, the Maine Liquor Law States of this Union are about to experience, or rather, are actually experiencing. The stringent laws which China has abandoned the enforcement of in despair, served but to increase the evil designed to be exterminated, and also hatched a new brood of evils which desolate the heart of both government and people, of moral rectitude and self-esteem. Human nature *there*, in its passions, is no more wild and uncontrollable than human nature as developed and trained in the States of this Union. Its weaknesses *there* are not less easily remedied than its corresponding weaknesses *here*. The vain hope of accomplishing here what has been so many years, and with such vigilant power and determination, labored in vain for there, has already begun to cast its shadows of disappointment and failure across the hearts and understandings of its well-wishers, and of some of its most earnest friends. In a recent address (it is said) by one of the masters of this prohibitory pulley-system of laws, the statement is made, that out of 600,000 individuals who had signed the temperance pledge, 450,000 had broken it, and returned to their previous habits of intemperance! And if this be so, argue the supporters of the system, it only proves more stringency of legislation is needed, and in the ratio that moral suasion is feeble. As well might the harpist continue to turn the screw that has already snapped the chords which discoursed music to his yearning heart, in the hope of hearing their lost tones return upon the ear with renewed melody. They forget that in the human passions there is no moral sense of shame, of fear, or of punishment, and that it is with human passions, in this matter, they have to contend. Where the judgment is weaker than the passion, the aid that is needed is to regulate the mastery, not to crush it out; for the blow that crushes it, crushes life itself. Passions in man grow, and passions die out; but they cannot be killed by violence, and on the instant. Reform, to be reliable, must be accomplished through the heart and the understanding; and these cannot be reached by forced marches. The tongue may be made to falsify both, as in the case of Galileo; but on the instant that constraint is relaxed, and often sooner, as in the case of Galileo, the tongue will own up to its falsehood, and the heart and the understanding triumph. The hand may be made to sign heartless pledges against a passion, as in the case of the 450,000 relapsing inebriates. And the handwriting may stand. But the false pledge will be disregarded at the first signal of returning passion. It has been well remarked by an early writer on politics, that there is eminent danger in a bad law that is incapable of execution; as the habit of disregarding it relaxes the popular sense of obedience to laws that are good.

Just so has been the half century of experience in China upon their laws against intemperance. And just so is history recording the experience of the Maine Law States upon similar legislation. The *New York Courier and Enquirer* of July 8, 1853, bears this testimony:—

The *Boston Traveler* states, that the drunkenness in that city and neighborhood at the late celebration, was "more common and offensive than usual on such occasions." In our own city, it is the general remark, that there was less appearance of this vice than ordinary. We had some disturbance, and many accidents; but in few cases only were they the effects of liquor. In Boston there is a Maine Liquor Law; in New York there is not.

The *Boston Daily Herald* of June 9th, 1853, as if inspired by the actual experience of China's prohibitory system, thus ably reasons respecting the experience that is being wrought out in one of the Maine Law States:—

The Maine Liquor Law is producing some curious effects. The manufacture and wholesale trade in liquors has been more extensive and profitable during the past year in Boston, than ever before during the last thirty years. Our large distilleries have been run night and day, employing two sets of hands, while previously one set of hands and day work were sufficient to supply the demand. The dealers have been so busily occupied in filling orders, that they have no time to spend in active efforts against the law. More money has been made in the trade this year than ever before.

Much perverse ingenuity has been exercised by the vendors of liquor, in devising means to forward the article without detection to their own proper customers, and to the advocates of the Maine Law who desire to use the beverage which they would prohibit to the community generally. Jugs, kegs, and barrels are packed in boxes or casks, in such a way as to defy detection.

We overheard a person connected with the trade say, that he had packed kegs of liquor in molasses casks, headed them in, and filled up with molasses; he had packed them in sugar boxes, filled around with sugar; he had packed them in oil casks, filled around with water, placing a piece of sponge saturated with oil over the bung, and covered with a piece of tin, so that when the cask is rolled over a little oil will be squeezed out, thus giving it an appearance that would deceive all but the most knowing ones; he had packed kegs in cheese casks, leaving a hole in the head of the cask through which a cheese (white-oak) was visible—and in various other modes, too numerous to mention, had he aided in the system of fraud and deceit, which is and ever will be carried on under such a law as the Maine Liquor Law. It is the usual mode to put a shipment of liquors into several of these various forms, to give it the appearance of a regular assortment of groceries, provisions, &c.—sugar, molasses, cheese, rice, oil, &c.

Of course these operations add to the expense of the article to the retailers in the country, and they must charge an enhanced price, or adulterate it sufficiently to make up for extra cost.

Expressmen are driving a profitable trade in this business. No matter what the ostensible nature of the packages in an expressman's car may be, under the system of hypocrisy originated and fostered under the Maine Law, you can hardly be certain that a bale of cloth or a chest of tea does not contain liquor. Now this operation is calculated to promote hypocrisy and dissembling, and when large classes of our citizens, like the liquor dealers and the consumers of the article, are made dissemblers and hypocrites, the ultimate results must be very bad.

This clandestine traffic in liquors is, on the face of it, a fraud, in a legal point of view; but you can never convince a man who has used liquor with moderation that it is a sin to do so, or that any power on God's earth has a right to deprive him of the privilege of using or selling it, by legal enactments; and when a set of fanatics, by the aid of political intrigue, have placed a law upon our statute books that interferes with this right, he considers it a very light offense to evade it. That the effect of violating laws, however absurd and oppressive, is bad in a community whose dearest institutions rest mainly upon the supremacy of law, no

one will doubt for a moment; and this Maine Liquor law, instead of curing the evil of intemperance, will fasten other evils upon us quite as serious.

As one of the results of the Maine Law, we may mention the increased adulteration of liquors. When the traffic is outlawed, of course the dealers, working against law, and exposed to great risks, are bound to make as large immediate profits as possible, as their business is liable to be broken up at any time. On the other hand, the purchasers of a contraband article, who are obliged to resort to secret measures to obtain it, cannot be critical in regard to its quality. They consider themselves fortunate if they obtain it at all, and are not likely to make loud complaints openly if it is of an inferior quality. Of course there is much good liquor sold in Boston; but we are inclined to the belief that more bad liquor is sold under the Maine law than ever before.

The town agencies are not the places where good liquor is always to be obtained, for in a majority of instances the agents are no judges of the article, and are cheated unmercifully, while those who are experienced in the trade, in too many instances adulterate it themselves. The thousands of gallons sold by town agents, (for medical purposes only!) are not free from the taint of the rectifier's art.

We have glanced at a few of the effects of the Maine Law, which is accomplishing a great many results, but it is not now effecting, nor ever will, the object ostensibly aimed at by its framers.

In the Province of New Brunswick, where a similar experiment of the pulley-system of legislation is being made, similar results are being experienced with those expressed above. The *Mirimichi Gleaner*, describing its operation in that vicinity, says:—

The law is a dead letter. No licenses were granted by the session. The opinion having been pretty extensively propagated, based, it is said, on declarations made by the members of the Legislature and by gentlemen of the legal profession, that the law is inefficient, and that no fine can be exacted under it, the natural consequences have resulted therefrom. The shops that formerly sold under a license, as well as nearly all the taverns, now sell without one, as well as a host of others. The consequence is, liquor is more abundant than formerly; and in the town of Chatham more riot and dissipation are to be seen, day and night, than have been witnessed for many years before.

In the city of Portland, the commercial emporium of Maine, the effects of this system impress different minds differently. Men unaccustomed by their previous habits and associations of life to seeing and knowing the places where the vice of intemperance did most abound, ascribe their present ignorance of its existence to the influences of the Maine Law, and mistakenly hold out to the world this want of knowledge as evidence that the devouring monster has ceased to live among the people under the law. Others, better circumstanced to judge, and to know how the fact is, testify, unqualifiedly, that the time never was when, within this same emporium of the State, so many places were before kept where intoxicating drinks are sold to all classes of men, as at the present time. Nay, more: that never was the time, before the present, when so much of ardent spirits, and so bad in its quality for poisoning the human system, within this same city were daily consumed. A multitude of names disbelieving a fact have an imposing appearance to the public eye; and yet the judgment comprehends how paramount is the evidence of a few witnesses only, whose knowledge of the fact disbelieved by so many, enables them to bear positive evidence of its existence. That men deceive themselves into false opinions in thus deceiving others, is an acknowledgment due to their integrity and undoubted sincerity in the cause espoused. But the author of this article has within a few days had the information from one of the most active of the police of Portland, who is daily

engaged in and dependent for his daily sustenance upon the energetic execution of the Maine Law, that his own conviction is, that the Maine Law serves to increase instead of diminish the use of intoxicating liquors in the city. His opportunity of knowing is unsurpassed—although his inspection is evaded, as a matter of course, by offending parties. It is the secrecy of the traffic, which the law renders indispensable to success, that prevents the friends of temperance from knowing, as formerly, the true extent of the vice at this time. Because they have made it secret, they unthinkingly conclude they have destroyed its existence. The philosophy of their logic is very much on a par with that of the idle miller, who wanted a reputation for industry fixed upon canvass. He bespoke of a distinguished artist the execution of a portrait of himself, standing at his mill-window, but so executed as not to be seen at the window by passers-by, lest he should be thought idle. The portrait was duly executed; the mill beautifully represented, the open window vacant, and no miller to be seen gazing in idleness upon the outer world. He praised the artist, admired the picture—but of a sudden objected, *that no portrait of himself was included!* “Ah!” replied the artist, “the portrait is inside the mill, nevertheless; but as you ordered it to be invisible when passers-by should be looking toward it, of course it is not now to be seen!” The easily satisfied miller loaded the artist with new praises for such exquisite skill, and, as the story runs, believes to the present day that his orders had been executed to the letter! He believed in the existence of his admirable portrait, because he could not see it; and the advocates of the Maine Law disbelieve in the existence of intemperance, *because they do not see it!* The belief in each case follows the wish, in contravention of the plainest rules of evidence. But our apprehension is, that ere one-fourth as much time, and toil, and treasure shall have been expended by Maine Law advocates, which have been expended by Chinese legislators in a similar process to accomplish a similar result, they will come to the same wise and practical conclusion that the Chinese have, of “*the propriety of a needful accommodation to the circumstances of the times,*” in all matters of legislation for the millions.

Art. III.—COMMERCIAL CITIES AND TOWNS OF THE UNITED STATES.

NO. XXXVI.

PITTSBURGH.

COMMERCE, PRODUCTS, AND MANUFACTURING RESOURCES.

CONSIDERING the geographical position of Pittsburgh with reference to Pennsylvania, the four great Eastern cities, and the various important Western districts of our country; viewing, likewise, the many cheap *natural* channels which flow towards her and out from her, and the innumerable artificial communications which are converging to her in every direction, and which are rapidly making her the center of the most extensive network of easy, cheap, and speedy transportation that the world has ever seen; estimating, also, the inexhaustible abundance of everything that makes a city great and prosperous—Coal, iron, timber, salt, &c., &c.,—we cannot avoid

the conviction that she is destined at no distant day to occupy the front rank among American cities, and that her future progress will be marked, rapid, and substantial.

The old geography descriptions containing frequent allusions to *manufactures, clouds of smoke, and Birmingham*, seem hitherto to have contained not only the mass of intelligent and inquiring persons abroad, but even to have satisfied her own citizens, who have exhibited the most unaccountable remissness as to the proper presentment of her claims, her interests, and unrivaled natural advantages, and who have allowed to pass unheeded and unrebuked numerous aspersions on her character, and unworthy slanders on her appearance and atmosphere. Her growth, therefore, to her present population, wealth, and usefulness, has been gradual, healthy, and solid, the result solely of her unparalleled natural advantages and the individual enterprise and industry of her inhabitants, unaided either by wholesale and persistent heralding of her claims upon, and her inducements to capitalists and settlers, or by the lately-required and all-transforming railroad, which is now infusing such an electric growth and vigor to so many of our Eastern and Western cities. But now, when the vast country back of her is becoming densely populated, when a constantly increasing demand for her multiform products is developing her resources, and when the numerous artificial avenues now being constructed to her are filling her lap with materials, and are conveying in all directions, and to all lengths, the various transformations which they undergo, a new era is dawning upon her. The new element of wealth and prosperity introduced by the two roads already finished, and the accessions of population and demand which they have already occasioned, give warrant that as each road now under process of construction is completed, it will add very materially to the amount and variety of her manufactures, will open up regions and markets hitherto completely shut out from her, and will more than employ the energy and means which she has present command of, and tax to the utmost the industry and resources of her people.

It is, therefore, most fitting and appropriate, that at this particular juncture and turning-point in her history, when she is leaving those things which are behind, and stretching steadily forward for those things which are before—when all is hopeful promise, activity, and bright expectation—that we give an account of her present Commerce, products, and resources. Although the past, present, and future of Pittsburgh might seem *each* to deserve a separate essay, as they are all full of interest and instruction, yet we will, without doing injustice to the subject, endeavor to give a comprehensive view of all combined, within the limits of one article.

Did space permit, it would be highly interesting to give a somewhat detailed account of the history of Pittsburgh, from its commencement as a fort in the time of Washington. Her annals present a greater variety of incidents than most American towns. Great Britain, France, Great Britain again, Virginia, the United States, and Pennsylvania, have each in turn exercised sovereignty there. Twice it has been captured in war—first by Contrecoeur in 1754, and by Forbes in 1758. Once besieged by Indians in 1763, once blown up and burned by French in 1738. It was the field of controversy between neighboring States in 1774, and finally the scene of civil war in 1794.

We give a brief summary of events, taken from the exceedingly instructive and valuable "*History of Pittsburgh*," published by Scoville B. Craig, one of the early settlers.

About the year 1750, the forks of the Ohio were densely surrounded by thick forests, inhabited only by the six nations, the most powerful and warlike Indians in America. The French at this time were in possession of Canada and Louisiana. Wishing to unite these distant possessions, they projected the design of connecting them by military posts, and established first a fortification at Franklin, Pennsylvania, at the mouth of French Creek, emptying into the Alleghany. A French officer was dispatched to take possession of the country along the Alleghany and Ohio rivers. The government of Virginia was naturally alarmed at this usurpation, and in 1753, Washington, at that time about twenty years old, was sent by Governor Dinwiddie to reconnoitre, and to learn their intentions. Arrived at the Ohio, on his way to the French commandant at Le Bœuf, it is from his own journal that we have the first account of the site of the present city, where at that time no human being resided. "As I got down before the canoe, I spent some time in viewing the river and the land in the fork, which I think extremely well suited for a fort, as it has the absolute command of both rivers. The land at the point is 25 feet above the common surface of the waters, and has a considerable bottom of flat, well-timbered land all around it, very convenient for building. The rivers are each a quarter of a mile across, and run very nearly at right angles, Alleghany bearing north-east and Monongahela bearing southeast. The former is a very rapid and swift-running water—the other deep and still, without any perceptible fall."

From this time this point was a bone of contention between contending parties. By reason of Washington's report, the next year Virginia sent a party to build a fort; but they had not yet succeeded in finishing it, before they were summoned to surrender to a superior force under charge of Contrecoeur, who approached with 1,000 Indians and French from the fort at French Creek. After the evacuation by the English, an account of the whole affair was forwarded to the English government by Dinwiddie, and this has been regarded as the commencement of the memorable war whose operations extended over Europe, Asia, Africa, and America. The French completed the fort, and called it Fort Duquesne, which remained with them until 1758. Gen. Braddock landed from England in 1755, with two regiments of 500 men each, and his first business was, with the aid of about 1,200 provincials from New York and Virginia, to attempt the recapture of Fort Duquesne. The fate of this disastrous expedition is too well known by all readers of American history—how the whole party was most fiercely beset about ten miles from Pitt—and how dreadful was the slaughter of Englishmen who knew not how to defend themselves against the Indian style of warfare. In this battle, many of those who afterwards became distinguished in our revolutionary contests, were engaged—Generals Gage, Gates, Morgan, Mercer, Stephens, and Neville, and, above all, George Washington, who performed prodigies of valor. In 1758, its capture was again attempted by Gen. Forbes; Major Grant, who was sent forward with 800 men, was totally routed on the hill above the city which now bears his name. Forbes, however, though an invalid and obliged to be carried on a litter, pressed forward, when the French set fire to the fort and abandoned the place, proceeding in their boats down the Ohio. A temporary stockade fort was then built, and called Fort Pitt, in honor of the efficient minister who then wielded the power of the English government.

In 1759, Gen. Stamoise began to construct another fort, which cost the

English government 60,000 pounds sterling. In 1665 it was besieged by Indians, in what is called the "Pontiac War," but was relieved by Col. Bouquet, a Swiss by birth, who took chief command. In 1764 was erected the sole existing monument of British dominion, which stands to this day entire, with this inscription deeply engraved on a stone inserted in one of the walls: "Colonel Bouquet, A. D. 1764."

In 1768, a treaty was made by the Pennsylvanians with the six nations, by which was ceded, for ten thousand dollars, all that country in Pennsylvania south of the west branch of the Susquehannah, and from the north-west corner of Cambria county to Kittaming, on the Alleghany, and all south of the Ohio. The part west of Alleghany River to the Ohio and Virginia State lines, was procured subsequently.

When this purchased country was proposed for sale, the Pennsylvanians determined to reserve that portion on which Pittsburgh is now situated, which was called "Manor of Pitt;" and in 1769 the warrant was issued for its survey, and in 1784 it was divided into lots, and the first sales made to Craig and Bayard. In 1786 was established the "Pittsburgh Gazette," the first paper west of the mountains, and which still enjoys a vigorous existence.

About this time, a dispute arose between Virginia and Pennsylvania about the dividing boundary lines, Virginia claiming by treaty of Charles I. and Pennsylvania by treaty of Charles II., and after much acrimonious feeling displayed on both sides, John Neville was sent with 100 men, who again took and occupied Fort Pitt. In 1779 commissioners were appointed by the two States to run boundary lines, which was done and which stand for a settlement forever.

In 1794 occurred the Western insurrection, commonly called the Whisky Rebellion, and which for a time threatened our young republic with civil war and scenes of blood. Its history and peaceful result are known to all. A settlement, however, was not secured until Washington had sent a large army into the disaffected district. Many of the insurgents were imprisoned, but it was thought wisest that a force of 2,500 men should stay there during the winter. Most of this army being composed of young and enterprising volunteers, were so much pleased with the place that they made arrangements to bring out their families and make it their future abode. The many unmistakable advantages of the place for manufactures were speedily observed, and from this time forward the growth of Pitt was sure and rapid.

In 1794 the "Borough of Pittsburgh" was incorporated, and in 1796 the first glass works were erected by O'Hara & Craig. The number of inhabitants assessed at this time was 1,395. In 1800 the number had only increased to 1,585. In 1797 Congress caused to be built there the first vessels competent for sea voyages. From 1802 to 1805 were constructed 4 ships, 3 brigs, and 4 schooners. The first bank and iron foundry were established the same year.

In 1809 the first flouring-mill was erected by Oliver Evans, and the first steamboat built for Fulton & Livingston, of New York—a history of which boat has already gone the rounds of the press. In 1812 the first rolling-mill was erected, and in 1816 the present "City of Pittsburgh" was incorporated.

In 1819 the Monongahela and Alleghany bridges were built connecting Pitt with Birmingham and Alleghany. The Pennsylvania Canal was com-

menced in 1826, and the first canal-boat arrived at Pitt in 1829; and from this time, as being the terminus of the main line of Pennsylvania internal improvements, her advance was regular and uniform; each year added to her population, wealth, and manufactures, until now she ranks among the most influential and powerful cities of the country, with over 100 churches, 8 banks, and 18 brokers' offices; more than 400 steam-engines; factories, mills, foundries, and glass-houses in the greatest abundance; and every variety of public and private schools, and institutions of learning and charity: and so evenly and uniformly have supplies, buildings, &c., kept pace with requirements, that all has been accomplished on the most solid basis of private and public credit, without rash or ruinous speculations, and without any destructive crisis. It is estimated, and we are assured very moderately, that there are over 100 persons in Pittsburgh who are worth over \$100,000 each, and at least an additional 150 who are worth over \$50,000 each. Most of her merchants and manufacturers enjoy unbounded confidence abroad, and her public credit is as yet untapped. As a proof of this solidity in money affairs, the disastrous conflagration of April, 1845, which in one day swept off so large a part of the most business portion of the city, which utterly destroyed over eleven hundred of dwellings, warehouses, and factories, and which consumed over \$7,000,000 of property; yet almost the whole space was rebuilt within one year, and the failures resulting from a misfortune which might well be called overwhelming were comparatively few and trifling.

Owing to the very limited amount of banking and of floating unemployed capital, money is always scarce there, and long-continued drougths and badly-arranged tariffs, have frequently caused temporary pressure; but the avenues now building to her markets will render again the former cause inoperative, and according to present prices of iron abroad, the existing *ad valorem* tariff is sufficiently protective.

The rise of property within the city limits is still very gradual—lands and rents are exceedingly low, and the cost of comfortable living small; yet there is no city with which we are acquainted that gives such rich promise of rapid and substantial progress and a prosperous future. The railroads now seeking entrance into Pittsburgh from various points will undoubtedly create many transformations in the appearance of the city, and it is probable that most of the manufactories will be forced out of the main city into the neighboring boroughs, and the private residences of the wealthy into the opposite city—Alleghany.

There is now a very important discussion going on in the public prints concerning the junctions of the different roads. It is most probable that all the roads will unite at or near the junction of the two rivers where stood the old fort. In this case, the Connellsville road would come down the Monongahela wharf, the Alleghany Valley road would come down the Alleghany wharf, the Steubenville and Chartiers Valley roads would cross the Ohio River together by a high bridge, 1,500 feet long, to Alleghany city, then uniting with the Ohio and Pennsylvania road and connections, they would all go together by another bridge, constructed with a "draw," across the Alleghany River to the "point." To this place the Central Pennsylvania Company has already laid a track, so that all these roads uniting there, that portion of the city would be wholly given up to depots and river shipment. The removal of various factories to Birmingham, a place capable of supporting 70,000 people, the accomplishment of a projected extension of her

wharves, the elevation of the Monongahela suspension bridge, and the erection of a new suspension bridge uniting Birmingham with the back portion of Pittsburgh, are local improvements which will at no distant day be accomplished, and which will add vastly to the size, appearance, and convenience of Pittsburgh.

The consolidation of the two cities, and the various contiguous boroughs, under one united and consentient corporate administration, will also produce marked good results; for want of it, the city has never had due weight given abroad to her population and importance. In the census and other reports, Alleghany city is estimated to have 21,262, and Pittsburgh proper 46,601 souls, while no account is taken of the various suburbs, where are situated her numerous factories and machine shops, and with which she is identified and most intimately connected. The latest and most careful city calculations estimate the population of Pittsburgh and *immediate* vicinity to be fully 110,000 souls, which number she would have were both the cities and all the boroughs adjacent consolidated.

Very erroneous ideas have gone abroad with reference to the appearance of Pittsburgh, and the facilities of comfortable living. Because the numerous furnaces and the enormous consumption of bituminous coal have clouded and polluted the atmosphere, and have rendered the main city and surroundings soiled and dismal looking, the impression has prevailed that it is a dirty and disagreeable town, and undesirable as a place of residence, and that, as the air is so contaminated, it must be unwholesome. Nothing could be farther from the facts. The better population of the city are cultivated, refined, and eminently social and hospitable—living plainly and without ostentation, and wonderfully attached to their city. The adjacent country, along the three rivers, is uneven, highly romantic and picturesque, and situated among charming valleys, and on commanding eminences, are the country seats of the wealthy merchants and manufacturers. Although many districts of country may be more highly cultivated, yet few can present more numerous or more pleasing landscapes, where hills and dales, woods and thickets, orchards and fields, hamlets and villas, may be seen in beautiful and varied succession. The views from Coal Hill, and from points along the Ohio and Alleghany rivers, are widely and justly celebrated, and offer some beautiful sites for retired residence. The coal smoke, which is considered such a nuisance by non-residents, is only tolerated by the citizens because there have been no good methods for abolishing it, and because it has been thought conducive to health. Be this as it may, "*smoke consumers*" have now, by order of the city councils, been introduced into the water works, and if found to result well they will be generally adopted by manufacturers, so that the only possible objection to living there will be removed. Dr. Myers, physician to Marine Hospital and President of Board of Health, in a late report gives it as his opinion that our coal smoke, by reason of its carbon, sulphur and iodine, is highly favorable to lung and cutaneous diseases. Whatever may be the causes, *certain it is, that no city in the United States can compare with Pittsburgh as regards health*—the chief peculiarity about it being its *exemption from epidemics*. This assertion the public reports will confirm. Cholera, yellow fever, and fever and ague never get foothold there, while infectious diseases never become alarmingly prevalent. Whether any part of this unusual healthfulness is attributable to the influence of smoke it were difficult to say, but it is more probably due to the fresh, pure, and sweet water which is drawn up from the Alleghany, to the currents and

agitations of air produced by the numerous furnaces and the valleys of three rivers running in different directions, and to the habits of industry and bodily activity which are fashionable in a manufacturing city ; and in this connection we can cite from a report, made by Dr. Denny, on the causes of this health : "Of all the great western towns, Pittsburgh is the farthest removed from the baneful exhalations of the swampy borders of the Mississippi, and accordingly enjoys a greater exemption from those diseases which, during the summer and autumn, prevail even as high up as Cincinnati. That exemption is supposed to be aided by an artificial cause—the combustion annually of ten million bushels of coal which fills the atmosphere with carburetted hydrogen, sulphurous gas, and the all pervading impalpable dust of carbon. It is anti-miasmatic, and hence it is that formerly the natural ponds, and latterly the foul and stagnant artificial basins have never generated remittent or intermittent fever. Dropsies, dysenteries, diarrheas, and cholera, diseases which are influenced by causes of a malarious origin, have never prevailed to any extent. In comparison with Eastern cities, there is much less pulmonary consumption, less scrofula, and less disease of the skin. In comparison with Western cities, including Cincinnati, there is less bilious fever, less 'cholera infantum,' and far less malignant cholera. On the whole it may be said that *no city in the Union* is more healthy, and that none resists better the malarious diseases to which, during the autumn, the whole great valley is more or less subject. Indeed, of the whole adjacent country, including nearly all of western Pennsylvania, it may be said that no part of the United States is better suited to a European constitution, and that the greater part will bear no comparison to it in point of salubrity."

Most undoubtedly the *present* manufacturing and commercial importance of Pittsburgh is mainly attributable to the mineral wealth scattered so prodigally around her, to her position at the head of the Ohio river, which gives her the benefit of 15,000 miles of cheap navigation, with the Alleghany coming from the North through a district containing the vastest stores of sub-soil and superficial wealth, and with the Monongahela coming from the South, through the richest bituminous coal district in our country, and having, in addition, the benefit of four important canals. Her *future* will depend still on her position and relations, but which will be rendered vastly more effective by the generous appliances of science and capital, by the developments and employment of treasures hitherto neglected, and by the omnipotent and wonder-causing railroad. By a statement of C. G. Childs, in 1847, it appears that over \$34,000,000 had been then expended in the construction of canals and railroads to convey the *coal alone* of eastern Pennsylvania to tide-water, and to the points of consumption. When one-half of that amount has been expended on western Pennsylvania, which is fully as rich in resources as the anthracite regions, and of which Pittsburgh is the chief outlet, who can estimate the results. The improvements which will produce these important effects *have already been commenced*, and in a few years Pittsburgh will enjoy the full fruition.

Considering, therefore, the local advantages and relations which we have mentioned, the natural and inevitable conclusion arrived at is, that Pittsburgh is destined for three great purposes : 1st. *A great manufacturing city* ; 2d. *A supplier of coal* to a market constantly increasing in extent, and requirements ; and, 3d. *A distributing depot* for the produce of the West to the sea-board, having close connection with three great markets, and a *distributing depot* for the products and merchandise of the East to the West,

having cheap communications in all directions. Whatever other accessions her advantages may produce, for *these three especially* is she fitted, and nothing but the most willful blindness and perverse negligence of her citizens can long delay this mission. Let us briefly consider these three points.

1. *Manufacturing Advantages.* All political economists agree that when the raw material is plenty, where the fuel for conversion into the manufactured article is abundant and easy of access, where the climate is suited for physical labor, and where the facilities for conveying the product to the purchaser and consumer are cheap, speedy and of the very best, that *that* place must, from the very force of circumstances, become a great manufacturing place. If, besides, labor is cheap and skill easily obtained, the cost of living low and the populace industrious and frugal, the certainty of this result is materially strengthened. All these advantages Pittsburgh possesses in a pre-eminent degree. McCulloch, in his "Statistics of English Manufactures," after mentioning the moral, political and physical advantages which go to build up a manufacturing city, concludes thus: "But of all the physical circumstances which have contributed to our extraordinary progress in manufactures and industry, none have had so much influence as our possession of most valuable coal mines. Our success in manufacturing copper and iron is not owing so much to our possession of ores and raw material as to our supplies of coal, by aid of which they have been smelted and refined, and to the vast and cheap power afforded since the invention of the steam engine. Our coal mines must be regarded as vast magazines of hoarded or warehoused power: and unless a radical change should be made in the steam engine, so as to materially lessen the quantity of fuel required to keep it in motion, *we will always maintain a great manufacturing position.*" If this is true of England, how much more true of Pittsburgh, where the coal is fully as abundant, of a better quality, and much more cheaply obtained. In England it requires large capital and strong companies to mine coal, which lies from 500 to 2,000 feet below the surface, and rendering necessary steam engines and mighty appliances and expenditures to keep them at work, but in west Pennsylvania enough coal to turn all the wheels, rolls, and machinery ever made, and of the kind, too, most valued for manufacturing purposes, can be found underlying, in rich beds, all the hills, and *above the ordinary levels of the country.* It is reached, after a few dollars outlay, by horizontal drifts, not perpendicular shafts, and the mines thus opened are *self-draining* and *self-ventilating.* Directly across from Pittsburgh the coal lies 200 feet high in the hills, and is sent down by cars right into the coal yards of the mills, foundries, &c., stretched along the base of the hills. It affords a power quite as cheap, more easily regulated, and more constant than water. If it is found profitable to transport coal from a distance, and to construct steam factories within the sound of waterfalls, as is now being done throughout New England, consider how much more profitable it would be when the factories are sited at the mouth of the mines themselves. The very best coal employed for the generation of steam costs, delivered at the port of consumption, only from fifty cents to one dollar and a quarter per ton of 2,240 pounds.

It is clearly manifest, then, that Pittsburgh will *in time* surpass, in amount and variety of products, any known manufacturing city in the world, not even excepting English Birmingham or Manchester. Already has she done much, and the amount and value of her multiform fabrics and products are not only not estimated and appreciated abroad, but Pittsburghers themselves

have no adequate idea of what is doing within their own precincts. We shall attempt, in a future number, to present a general account of them, treating of their amount, variety and value as correctly as the scanty reliable data at our command will allow, and deferring a complete statement and classification until a regularly authorized and authentic census is properly undertaken by the city of Pittsburgh, which, in justice to herself, should be no longer delayed. All branches of manufacturing business are now in a high state of activity and prosperity, stimulated to unusual effort and productiveness by the prospect of constantly increasing demand and good profits. All the rolling mills, glass factories, and many other works are in operation night and day, and it is estimated that for 1854, the amount of coal, manufacturing and other products will not be less than \$50,000,000.

It is *matter of much astonishment* that the attention of eastern capitalists has not been more directed to Pittsburgh, and that investments which promise such rich, such speedy, and such certain returns have not long ago been made. Capital need never go a-begging as long as there is abundance of work and profit for an additional hundred of steam engines. The effect of railroads there has been similar to that which occurs in other cities, to make money scarce for a time. Increased demand and facilities require increased capital and expenditure for augmenting the supply, and those who have the desire and enterprise to establish new branches would have to take the requisite capital from their respective business, for the available capital is all actively employed. Thus only can we account for the neglect, that would otherwise be unpardonable, in not establishing certain manufactories which would pay most largely and munificently. The *American Railroad Journal*, in a series of statements and calculations, endeavored to demonstrate how much would be saved by manufacturing locomotives at that point, and figured out a profit of 50 to 100 per cent on investment; and yet, although several attempts have been made, no factory is yet started. No place combines so many advantages for their construction as Pittsburgh: forged work and castings cheap and abundant; labor, skill and cost of material low; any extent of cheap water navigation, and a network of variously gauged roads centering in the city, and ramifying indefinitely to the West and Southwest. If no additional Western roads were to be constructed there would be ample demand for five first class locomotive factories, five passenger car factories, and the same number of freight car factories. These last, together with chilled wheels, axles, and detached pieces of brass, iron and copper locomotive work, are now made to some extent, but scarcely a tithe of what should be. There is no better point for the establishment of woolen mills for the manufacture of coarse blankets, cassimerse, shawls, &c., &c. The heavy yields of improved fleeces from Washington County, Pennsylvania, and from Brook County, Virginia, the great Western wool-growing districts, is conveyed hundreds of miles to Eastern mills, where power is dearer, and is returned to the West, where power is cheap, with costs of two transportations added. No place combines more advantages for the manufacture of wood screws, every description of agricultural implements, all kinds of heavy and fine cutlery, railroad iron and spikes, every variety of copper working, and, in fact, every article where cheap power, cheap timber, skill, and metallic material are required, and where the facilities for reaching an accessible and ever-extending market are unsurpassed. A survey of the map, and an examination into the resources of western Pennsylvania, will prove this without any peradventure.

The metal and blooms now used at Pittsburgh are procured chiefly from Venango, Clarion, Armstrong, Juniata, and Huntingdon Counties, Pa., and floated there by the Alleghany River, and canals. Some comes from the anthracite regions beyond the Alleghany Mountains, some from "Hanging Rock," Ohio, and some from Cumberland River, Tennessee. This last, being of peculiar quality, is used chiefly for mixing with other kinds. Western Pennsylvania has enough ore within its bosom to last for ages, containing from 30 to 60 per cent of metallic iron, although the furnaces do not get more than 40 per cent generally. This waste is attributable, it is thought, to too feeble blasts, and other causes.

Most of the furnaces sold out by the sheriff during the last five years are again in full blast, and many new ones have been built; and if only the government will not interfere to abolish or withdraw protection, the iron trade of our country will be independent of England in ten years. All that is required of Pittsburgh, to keep up her manufacturing position, is to be fully up to the spirit of the age in appliances of skill and science, to increase and multiply in every manner the various means of decreasing the price of material and the cost of reaching it; to prepare numerous and uninterrupted channels by which the products of capital and industry may go all lengths and in all directions; and, finally, by conducting herself in a liberal, wise, and honorable spirit towards her patrons, so that it may become not only one's interest, but one's pleasure, to buy of her.

2. *Supplies of Coal.* Pittsburgh and vicinity will always supply the North, South, and West with great quantities of coal. They will always need it, and she will always have it. In Ohio and Illinois, and other districts in the West, there are large deposits of coal, but it, so far, has been what is called "surface coal," of inferior quality, and mixed with sulphur. There is a prospect, however, of much good coal being mined, and that for many purposes it will be exclusively used. But Pittsburgh and Monongahela coal, it will be granted, for manufacturing purposes, for steamboats and vessels, for locomotives, and for gas, will always command a premium and a ready market; and as long as they can find it of such excellent quality and of so inexhaustible abundance; as long as they can mine and load it so cheaply, and can transport it so easily, its working and sale will, for many years to come, afford remunerative profits. The prices which western and southwestern localities pay for coal in times of low water, and consequent scarcity, are very high, and this demand will constantly increase, with the spread of population and the multiplication of the steam-engine.

The coal trade of Pittsburgh is yet in its infancy, but will evidently magnify every year. The fluctuations and dangers of river navigation have hitherto rendered its delivery to the West uncertain and costly; but the practice now beginning to be adopted, of carrying in barges, as also an improved navigation of the Ohio, will much diminish the prices and augment the consumption. It will likewise have the effect of driving the small dealers out of the trade, as it requires more capital than in the present flat-boat style. The Northwest, too, and the lake regions, which have been hitherto shut out from all coal measures, will be supplied in part from Pittsburgh, and in part by Alleghany Valley Railroad through Buffalo. The source from which Pittsburgh and the West is supplied with coal is called the "Great Pittsburgh Seam;" and, according to the reports of two eminent geologists, Rogers and Trego, "is the most important and *extensively accessible* seam of coal in our western coal measures. Careful examinations have shown that

it spreads uninterruptedly over the whole valley of the Monongahela, from the base of Chestnut Ridge to the western bounds of the State. It consists of three parts: first, the main breast of coal, varying from five to nine-and-a-half feet thick, of pure and compact coal; above this a layer of clay, and over this another bed of coal, forming the roof of the mine." Trego says—"It yields from five-and-a-half to nine-and-a-half feet of the purest and best kind of coal, and is attended throughout its whole course with the most valuable deposits of limestone, existing to it always in the same relation." Taylor, in his large work on coal, says that "this bed has been traced through Virginia, Pennsylvania, and Ohio, to the length of 225 miles, and maximum breadth of 100 miles. Besides this main bed at Pittsburgh, there is another seam above water level, of less value, on account of its intermixture of slate. It has been ascertained, during the boring for salt water opposite to Pittsburgh, that four good seams, besides two small ones, lie at a considerable depth below the surface." And, lastly, to take an extract from Sir Charles Lyell, the eminent geologist, in his "Travels in North America:—"From Uniontown we went to Brownsville, on the Monongahela, where the country consists of coal measures. *I was truly astonished*, now that I had entered the hydrographical basin of the Ohio, at beholding the richness of the seams of coal, which appear everywhere on the flanks of the hills, and at the bottoms of the valleys, and which are accessible in a degree which I never witnessed elsewhere. The time has not yet arrived—the soil being still densely covered with the primeval forest, and manufacturing industry in its infancy—when the full value of this inexhaustible supply of cheap fuel can be appreciated; but the resources which it will *one day* afford to a region capable by its agricultural produce alone of supporting a large population, are truly magnificent. In order to estimate the advantages of such a region, we must reflect that three great navigable rivers (the Alleghany, Monongahela, and Ohio) intersect it, and lay open on their banks the level seams of coal. I found at Brownsville a bed, ten feet thick, of good bituminous coal, commonly called the 'Pittsburgh Seam,' breaking out in the river cliffs near the water's edge. So great are the facilities for procuring this fuel, that already is it found profitable to convey it in flatboats for the use of steamships at New Orleans, 2,000 miles distant, in spite of the dense forests bordering the intermediate river plains, whose timber may be obtained for the cost of felling it."

These flatboats, mentioned by Lyell, are now generally used. They go out in pairs, with sweepers on each side, and will contain from 20,000 to 25,000 bushels per pair. Each pair requires about twelve men to navigate them. As when full they draw from five-and-a-half to seven-and-a-half feet of water, it is not considered safe to stand out except on a "nine-foot rise," although, on account of long drouths, and consequent high prices, they often attempt it on an eight-and-a-half, and even an eight feet stage of water. There are generally two such stages a year, when these boats go out in fleets, numbering from 250 to 300 boats. As the bottoms of the boats are not over a foot from the bottom of the river, and the exposed part only a foot or two out of water, there is great danger of their being sunk, both by snags and storms, and boats with all their freights are frequently completely lost.

In the rise occurring about the 15th of January last, over 65 pairs of boats, containing 1,600,000 bushels of coal, were sunk by a storm, and several hands drowned. To guard against these dangers, and to provide a more uniform supply of coal, the principal owners are building barges, which

draw less water, and which are to be towed down and up; this will prevent the supply of coal from ever getting so low as it has been this Fall.

As no regular or official statistics are kept of this trade, we take the statement of C. S. Eyster, of Pittsburgh, which was prepared for and published in the *Philadelphia Register*, which is a tolerably fair but too low estimate of last year's business. During the year 1854, while the home consumption will be much increased, the amount exported from Pittsburgh will be nearly doubled.

Domestic uses.....bushels.	12,000,000
Rolling mills.....	6,375,000
Foundries.....	540,000
Glass houses.....	600,000
Engine and machine shops.....	600,000
Cotton factories.....	100,000
Glass works (two).....	200,000
Public buildings.....	150,000
Miscellaneous engines, &c.....	900,000
Steamboats.....	840,000
Total consumption.....	22,805,000
Amount exported from Pittsburgh to other places.....	14,403,921
Total amount, in bushels.....	36,708,921
Total amount in tons of 2,240 lbs.....	1,811,083

The Monongahela River, throughout the whole length of which lie vast and accessible beds of coal, has as yet been opened up by means of slack-water navigation only as far as Brownsville, but will shortly, by the addition of three dams, be navigable as far as Fairmount, Va., on the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, and thus vastly increase the supply. These are the "black diamond" mines, as the Pennsylvania ore beds are the "gold diggings" by which Pittsburgh is destined to rise to power and influence, and their importance to her may be computed by one more extract from McCullough:—

"It is hardly possible to exaggerate the advantages England derives from her vast beds of coal. Our coal mines are the principal source of our manufacturing and commercial prosperity. Since the invention of the steam-engine coal has become of the highest importance as a moving power; and no nation, however favorably situated in other respects, not plentifully supplied with this mineral, need hope to rival those that are, in most branches of manufacturing industry. To what is the astonishing increase of Glasgow, Manchester, Birmingham, Leeds, and Sheffield, and the comparatively stationary or declining state of Canterbury, Winchester, Salisbury, and other towns in the south of England, to be ascribed? The abundance of coal in the north, and its scarcity and high price in the south, is the *real* cause of the discrepancy. Our coal mines have conferred a thousand times more real advantage on us than we have derived from the conquest of the Mogul Empire, or than we should have reaped from the dominion of Mexico and Peru."

The *a fortiori* application here is manifest, and it is because that "we cannot exaggerate its importance" that we devote so much space to its consideration.

In Beaver County, Pa., and along the route of the Alleghany Valley Railroad, have been found some exceedingly valuable deposits of the richest and purest cannel coal. From the Beaver mines a road of six miles is now being constructed, to unite them with the Ohio and Pennsylvania road, when the

greatest quantity will be sent to the lake cities and to New York city for gas. The huge mass of cannel coal on exhibition at the Crystal Palace was from this mine, and is of remarkable richness, and equal to the best species of Scotch cannel. The vein from which it was derived is in some places fully fifteen feet thick.

In the April number we will briefly discuss the third great purpose for which Pittsburgh is destined, viz., to be a *distributing depot* for the East and West, when we will take a comprehensive survey of the eastern and western system of roads which make Pittsburgh a converging point: the local measures of improvement which will influence the Commerce of the city; and will also give a statement of the various manufactures established there, their value, and growing importance.

ART. IV.—TRADE AND COMMERCE OF ST. LOUIS IN 1853.

CONTINUING a plan adopted several years since in regard to the principal commercial cities in the Western and Southern parts of the Union, we are again able to present our readers with the history and statistics of the trade and Commerce of St. Louis for the year ending December 31st, 1853. In a paper which we prepared and published in the *Merchants' Magazine* for August, 1846, (vol. vi., pp. 162-171,) we gave a brief historical sketch of St. Louis, and its commercial and industrial progress. In March, 1851, (vol. xxiv., pp. 298-316,) we published the annual statement of the *Missouri Republican*, for the year ending December 31st, 1850; and in March, 1852, (vol. xxvi., pp. 306-325,) the statement for 1851, and again, last year, in April, 1853, (vol. xxviii., pp. 420-438,) a similar history and review for the year 1852. From ALFRED VINTON, Esq., the President of the Chamber of Commerce of St. Louis, we have received in pamphlet form, the unusually elaborate annual review and statistics of the trade and Commerce of that city, as originally prepared for and published in the *Missouri Republican*. The business of St. Louis, as will be seen, "exhibits a gratifying increase over that of any other noticed for several years."

In the immense transactions of the year, involving diversified interests and embracing every department of industrial pursuits, requiring credit and means to an almost unlimited extent, it is gratifying to record the fact that the business men of St. Louis preserved their usual prudence and sagacity unimpaired, and added additional evidences to their high character for probity and honor. Not an instance that can at present be recurred to, throws a shade on the year's business—every promise was met, every reliance supported in good faith, and all the varied interests subserved upon principles of equity and fairness, calculated to impress other communities most favorably. In making these commendatory remarks, we do not design them to be confined to our citizens alone. Shippers to this port, from the various States adjoining, exhibited the same spirit, and perhaps no city and country of the same dimensions, enjoying a trade of similar character, can show less of misunderstanding between parties. Such mutual confidence cannot but result profitably; from such confidence will spring a continued prosperity, and to this will be attributed in the future, in a great degree, the regard this metropolis will enjoy when varied avenues shall have been opened to divert its trade.

Our city improvements are commensurate with the agricultural growth of the

surrounding country. Commercial buildings have grown up during the year, which for finish and capacity exceed any other erections. Public edifices also adorn the city, devoted as well to secular as religious purposes, heretofore unsurpassed for dimensions and architectural beauty. The borders of the city are extended, and residences dot the eminences far beyond the old boundaries.

The past can show no corresponding period superior to the year just closed for general good health. Not the slightest epidemic prevailed, and our bills of mortality will compare well with the most favored locality in the whole length and breadth of the Union. This health continued during a heavy influx of population, the greater part of which passed through infected regions on the way to St. Louis. The city, too, throughout the year was crowded—scarce a house was tenantless, and it is safe to state, from observation, in the absence of any official data, that the population of St. Louis never was greater. It will appear, when the official census is taken in the spring, that a large addition was made during the year to our population.

For the first time in the history of St. Louis we have the statistics and transactions of a railway to add to the river Commerce—and a flattering statement it will be found. The Pacific Railroad is now completed for a distance of only 40 miles. It runs this distance through a portion of country which has not, although contiguous to St. Louis, been brought under cultivation. Hardly a farm is to be observed along the whole route, while the present terminus is in a dense forest, and the facilities for gaining the depot are of the most primitive order. This step in the great line now already begun to connect the Mississippi with the Pacific—St. Louis with San Francisco—has over-paid the expenses of transportation more than ten thousand dollars! Such a result must convince the most incredulous of the importance as well as profit of these improvements. As this road shall progress, penetrating districts already well settled and highly cultivated, and as on either side of it, stimulated by the facilities offered to reach a market cheaply and expeditiously, the country becomes better populated and well improved, the business will, of course, be immeasurably enhanced, and at no distant day the receipts will equal those of one of our upper rivers.

The board of directors of the Ohio and Mississippi Railroad announce that that work will be completed to Vincennes, on the Wabash, by next July. St. Louis has a right to expect from this road a heavy accession to her commercial resources. The route traverses a section of country which lies far removed from any navigable stream—too far to admit of land carriage on the products for which the soil and climate are best adapted—and this means of conveyance will, of course, fill up the country with an industrious population. For one hundred and seventy-five miles this road runs through the rich prairies and wood-lands of the opposite State, terminating this division of its course in the Wabash Valley, one of the richest agricultural sections in the whole West.

To show the business of the year, we compare the receipts of some of the leading articles, and give the increase and decrease as follows:

	1852.	1853.	Increase.	Decrease.
Tobacco	hhds. 14,058	10,102	3,951
“	boxes. 12,886	10,528	1,858
Hemp	bla. 49,122	63,350	14,228
Lead	pigs. 409,814	442,218	32,404
Flour	bbls. 181,838	200,203	68,870
Wheat	bush. 1,591,886	2,077,427	485,541
Corn	skts. 344,720	459,192	114,472
Oats	328,081	464,062	140,981
Barley and malt	47,264	62,885	15,621
Pork	bbls. & trcs. 66,306	78,354	12,048
Lard	42,515	35,168	7,347
“	kgs, cns, &c. 11,815	16,889	5,074
Whisky	bbls. 46,446	51,207	4,761
Hides	97,148	101,440	4,292
Bagging	pcs. 3,650	2,326	1,324
Bale rope	coils. 42,121	58,487	16,316

Taking the business generally of the produce and grocery markets, the excess of the year just closed over the transactions of last, will range between three and five millions of dollars.

EXCHANGES. It is generally known that the main bases for exchange are the products of the country. The exchanges act as a barometer, as regards business and trade. When imports are not excessive and the exports fair, exchange rules low; and, on the contrary, when the imports are heavy, exceeding the exports of the products of the country, the unhealthfulness of business, with indebtedness, are perceptible. An advance in exchanges, and a necessity for shipments of coin in large sums to liquidate balances and produce an equilibrium, result immediately. When this is effected a decline again takes place. Heavy shipments of corn to foreign countries will soon produce a reaction; but while this reaction is going on, a reaction is also taking place in the business of the country. A check is given to business, and a general system of contraction necessarily follows. The banks—while coin in large amounts is drawn from the vaults and shipped abroad—curtail their loans and discounts, which, if continued but for a short period, produces a stringency in the money market, impairs confidence and excites distrust in the solvency of the business community. This feeling is produced throughout the whole country, and affects all departments of trade. Therefore, every business man, who does not wish to be taken by surprise, should watch closely the course of the exchanges, and shape his transactions accordingly. We have only to look back a few months to observe the truth of the above. It is generally known that our foreign importations have been very heavy during the past year—greatly in excess of exports; as a necessary consequence foreign exchange advanced, and coin in large amounts was sent forward to liquidate the balance. This aspect of affairs alarmed the banking institutions on the sea board, and the result was a contraction and a curtailment of their loans and discounts, in New York alone, to the amount of fifteen millions, which produced a stringency in the money market and high rates of interest. It was almost impossible to convert long time paper into money, which the importers had taken in payment of their goods, and this checked foreign importers from remitting, owing to their inability to raise money unless at ruinous rates of interest. This development exhibited the inflated and speculative business of the eastern cities, together with the country generally, and the dependence upon the banks for facilities. As the banks relaxed and extended their discounts and loans, coin began again to go forward, and foreign exchange advanced.

The same principle which governs and controls the exchanges of the eastern cities with foreign countries, likewise controls and governs the exchanges of the interior with the eastern and southern cities. Admitting the principle to hold good, and it will be perceived from the following ruling rates for exchange during the past year, that the business of our city and the surrounding country has been, and is in a healthy and prosperous condition. The selling rates of exchange on the eastern cities and New Orleans, have been as follows:—

	Eastern Cities.	New Orleans.		Eastern Cities.	New Orleans.
January	Par.	$\frac{1}{2}$ Premium.	July	Par.	Par.
February	Par.	$\frac{1}{2}$ Premium.	August	$\frac{1}{2}$ Premium.	Par.
March	Par.	Par.	September ..	$\frac{1}{2}$ Premium.	Par.
April	$\frac{1}{2}$ Premium.	Par.	October	$\frac{1}{2}$ Premium.	Par.
May	$\frac{1}{2}$ Premium.	Par.	November..	$\frac{1}{2}$ Premium.	Par.
June	$\frac{1}{2}$ Premium.	Par.	December ..	$\frac{1}{2}$ Premium.	Par.

The above quoted rates for eastern and New Orleans exchange denote that the exports of the products of the West were abundant to supply the demand, and the low rates at which it was sold also shows the healthfulness of the business of the West. The exchanges also denote the amount of business between the several cities. We estimate the amount of exchanges sold by the Bank of Missouri and private bankers, during the past year at not less than \$38,000,000. This does not include the floating exchange, which the bank and bankers do not

touch, but is of that description made and remitted by the merchants themselves. This class of exchange we estimate at not less than \$4,000,000 additional. These estimates exhibit a great increase in the sales of exchange within the past two years. The Committee of the Chamber of Commerce in their report of January, 1852, in relation to the amount of exchanges sold in our city, remark as follows: "The amount of exchanges sold during the past year we estimate at twenty-two millions of dollars, the bank supplying two million of dollars, whilst the bankers afford the remaining twenty."

MONEY. At the commencement of the year 1853 our money market was very easy, and continued so during the spring and part of the summer months, and until the period referred to, when the New York city banks became alarmed at the large importations and the heavy indebtedness of the country, and the expected calls for large amounts of coin for shipment to Europe in payment of balances. The banks of the city immediately commenced curtailing, and in fifteen weeks they decreased their loans and discounts, as their weekly reports show fifteen millions of dollars. The banks of Boston, Philadelphia, and Baltimore, also curtailed their discounts in a corresponding ratio. This curtailment produced a stringency in the money market there, and rates of interest ruled in the street from $1\frac{1}{2}$ to 2 per cent per month for good commercial paper. This tightness was immediately felt here, first by our private bankers, in the reduction and loss of their deposits, and the constant calls made upon them for money by their customers to meet obligations in the Atlantic cities—for the facilities heretofore extended had been necessarily cut off by the inability of their eastern friends to obtain the usual banking accommodations. There was a good demand for eastern exchange, and our private bankers' cash balances with their eastern correspondents were soon greatly reduced; and as their time paper, which all held in large sums, could not be used unless at the high current rate of interest, they were not in a position to grant the facilities asked. The results of the stringency has been to induce money from the country to be sent to St. Louis for investment, at the high rate of 1 to $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent per month. It is generally the case that during the pork season large sums of money are needed to send into the country for investment in that article, which, as a general thing is not returned again, until the spring of the year. The old year just passed closed with a very tight and stringent money market and high rate of interest.

The lands in our immediate vicinity and throughout the western country have advanced within the past two years astonishingly, and enough to make the owners and occupants immensely wealthy. City property has advanced correspondingly, and as a necessary consequence rents have also advanced. The prices of grain, and other products of the agriculturists of the West, have maintained and commanded high prices.

The several railroad companies, in the progress of completion in this State and Illinois, have expended many millions of capital for labor, materials, &c., upon them. We estimate the amount of expenditure on the several roads in the immediate vicinity of our city, and within the circuit of trade with us, at ten millions of dollars. The disbursement of this large sum, and the prospective facilities of the easy and cheap rates of transporting to market the products from that part of the country which has heretofore been uncultivated and unsettled, has caused the land to be readily sought after adjacent to the railroads, and the prices have therefore advanced amazingly, and far beyond the sanguine expectations of the projectors of the railroad companies.

The manufacturing establishments in our city have likewise added, and are continuing to add, greatly to its wealth. The capital required to put in operation these establishments is immense, and the labor demanded to conduct and carry on the business appertaining to them is surprising to those not familiar with them, and the money required to be paid out weekly by them for labor only, is likewise very great.

Manufacturing establishments tend greatly to enrich a city, and as a necessary consequence the surrounding country. The necessities demanded by the labor-

ers in manufacturing establishments, create a home market for many articles of produce that would have to be sent to other cities for disposal.

We have a large stock trade with California, by the plains, the proceeds of which is returned to us in gold coin, and adds to the wealth of the West.

The emigrants from the Western States to California, a few years ago, are constantly returning, home with the gold they have dug out of the earth, and it is thus being disseminated throughout the Mississippi Valley.

The emigration from the Eastern and Middle States to the West continues large, and the foreign emigration heavy. We have no data by which to tell the aggregate amount of capital brought to the West by foreigners annually; but that item, doubtless, is immense. Those who do not bring any actual money, but a robust person, and ability to assist in developing the resources of the country, we look upon as actually adding to the wealth of the country.

THE BANK OF MISSOURI. We need hardly tell our readers that the Constitution restricts banking operations, by incorporated institutions, to one Bank and five branches. The Parent Bank is located in St. Louis, and the entire capital is about \$1,200,000. One-half of this sum is allotted to the branches, and the other half constitutes the active capital of the Bank in this city. This, it will readily be conceded, is a very insufficient banking capital, but it has been used so as to assist very materially the business of our citizens. On application in the proper quarter, we learn that the "Local Discounts," from January 1, 1853, to Dec. 31st of the same year, amounted to \$5,592,271 61; and the "Exchange purchased" for the same period was \$6,343,433 08; making the total business of the Bank for the year, \$11,935,704 69. This business has been done upon a capital of \$600,000, and safely done. We may be allowed to say, that it shows good management on the part of the President and Directors, and an earnest desire to meet, as far as was in their power, the wants of the community. It will soon be a matter for the consideration of the people of the State, whether these facilities, as well as those which may have been extended by the branches, shall be withdrawn altogether, by a refusal of the Legislature to renew the charter of this Bank, or to create a new one in its stead, if this shall be deemed most advisable. The Constitution provides for a Bank and branches, the capital of which shall not exceed \$5,000,000. All this, and more, is wanted for the commercial and business operations of the State, and this extent of capital ought not to be denied to us. We would prefer to see it divided among a number of Banks, so as to induce healthful competition, and to keep each other straight; but as this cannot be done, the use of all the capital provided for by the Constitution should be secured by legislative enactment. There is no city in the Union where money can be so well invested in Banks as St. Louis, as the dividends of our Banks for the past year will establish; and a good charter would insure the subscription of any amount of stock.*

HEMP. The increase of receipts over last year, in this important staple, foot up about 14,324 bales, making an aggregate of 63,450, against 49,124 for 1852. When to this is added the enhanced rates at which the article ruled, (a considerable portion of the crop bringing as high as 20 per cent advance on the sales of the previous season,) a money balance in favor of the present year may safely be estimated at from \$200,000 to \$300,000. The following table shows the comparative prices of 1852 and 1853:—

* Since the above was written the Bank statement has been published, and the dividend declared for the past six months of the year. It amply sustains our position, that in no section of the Union can a Bank make so much money as in St. Louis and Missouri, and nowhere is banking capital more necessary for actual business operations. For the six months ending the 31st of December, the Bank declared a dividend of ~~ten per cent~~ on its capital; and for the first six months of the year, a dividend of ~~seven per cent~~ was declared—making the dividend for the year ~~seventeen per cent~~. This was done, too, after passing \$24,308 10 to the Contingent Fund, as required by the charter, being one per cent upon the capital stock for each six months—and making the accumulated Contingent Fund a fraction less than \$100,000. Even after declaring this dividend, and setting aside this one per cent, there is still an undivided surplus of \$25,249 53, placed to the credit of "Interest and Exchange." It may be added, that out of the \$256,176 40, earned during the year, the sum of \$168,978 66 was earned by the Parent Bank alone.

	1852.		1853.		1852.		1853.
January.....	\$75 a \$92		\$90 a \$108	July	72 a 85		95 a 120
February	75 a 90		100 a 116	August	68 a 87		100 a 119
March	60 a 85		95 a 112	September....	83 a 91		105 a 122
April	60 a 75		85 a 108	October	88 a 100		110 a 127
May	62 a 78		92 a 112	November.....	92 a 100		105 a 130
June.....	72 a 82		80 a 105	December	88 a 107		119 a 130

Taking the lowest and highest figure of each year, it will be found that the advance for 1853 is considerably over 20 per cent, but as this method of computing relative values may not hold good, especially under the circumstances of the present case, we give the above sum, which, embracing as it does the increase in the receipts, estimated at \$120 per ton, will hardly be considered over the mark—say three hundred thousand dollars.

At the close of 1852, the residue on the market, unsold, amount to 500 bales. This was gradually reduced during January, and about the middle of February the last hundred bales of this residue brought \$116. As stated in our prefatory remarks, the rivers above were but temporarily obstructed by ice, and in January the first lot came forward from the Upper Mississippi, consisting of 38 bales. In February 547 bales were received from the Missouri, and 300 from the Mississippi. The good price at which the old stock closed out stimulated shippers, and receipts became heavy at an earlier day than usual. In March the Missouri sent out 8,000 bales, the Upper Mississippi 585, and the Illinois 103; and from this time until the close of August, shipments continued large. We give, for greater convenience, in this connection, a comparative statement of monthly receipts for the past two years:

	1852.	1853.		1852.	1853.
January.....	17	38	July.....	8,387	7,303
February.....	312	847	August.....	6,311	6,252
March.....	5,745	8,689	September.....	3,057	2,332
April.....	4,737	12,420	October.....	1,719	1,873
May.....	7,539	10,687	November.....	1,030	1,833
June.....	9,712	10,928	December.....	558	296
Total.....				49,124	63,448

The first lots from the Missouri, in February, brought from the levee \$100 to \$108, the demand good. In the beginning of March receipts very liberal for the season, and sales effected at \$95 to \$112. During the month the market was depressed in consequence of the difficulty in shipping from New Orleans to northern ports, and several consignments were stored. Added to this, orders from the Ohio, from the low price of baling stuffs, were limited to \$90 and \$95. A decline resulted, and at the close \$87 to \$95 were the ruling rates. In April the range from \$87 to 103, the market inactive. But little change took place until the middle of May, when reported sales of large parcels of old hemp in New York at \$130, depressed prices, and buyers obtained lots at \$93 to \$95. Subsequently an active demand from the Ohio river enabled holders to realize an advance of \$3 to \$5 per ton, and the month closed with the market firm—stock in warehouse at the time about 5,000 bales. On the first of June, sales ranged from \$86 to \$100. About the 4th, several large parcels were on the levee, consigned to farmers; they remained there day after day, and at length went off at a decline—say \$94 to \$96. Low prices prevailed, the balance of the month—lots of good to prime commanding only from \$86 to \$93—resulting from the accumulated and increasing stock on the market and exorbitant freight charges to the Ohio river. By the beginning of the ensuing month (July) prices were enhanced by a reported failure of the Kentucky crop. Several buyers from that State came in and took two or three hundred tons at from \$92 to \$100, on speculation. A further advance was produced by an apprehended disturbance between Russia and Turkey, and prices reached \$100 to \$112 by the 15th. On the 25th sales were made at \$115 to \$117, and on the 28th a lot of strictly

prime (the result of a little excitement between purchasers) brought \$120. After this, a pause ensued for a week or two; but events leading to the belief of a further advance had already transpired, and subsequent transactions show the result. In August the range was \$100 to \$119, September \$105 to \$122, October \$110 to \$127, November \$105 to \$130, December principally at \$122 to \$128. The year closes with between 1,500 and 1,600 bales in warehouse unsold, and holders firm at last quotations.

In last year's report, speaking of the crop then preparing for market, we observed, "It is represented throughout the State as fully an average one as regards quantity, and as respects texture is said to be very superior." This representation proved fully correct. The quantity was above the average, and the quality met the anticipations of all.

BALE-ROPE AND BAGGING. In addition to the increase in the receipts of hemp this season as compared with last, and the enhanced prices of the article, making a money difference in the operations of the two years, of a quarter of a million and more, as already mentioned, the item of bale-rope comes in to swell the amount to a still greater extent. Receipts this year foot up 58,437 coils, against 41,674 last, showing a difference of 16,763 coils. This difference, at the ruling market rates, gives the sum of \$17,000; and when to this is added the advance on the whole receipts, over the prices of the preceding year, a cash increase on operations sums up \$60,000. Sales during the year were unusually large. Many Southern orders heretofore sent to the Ohio river, were filled at this point—our market offering equal inducement as far as quality is concerned, and superior claim to the consideration of buyers as regards cheaper transportation. Sales ranged from 6 a 6½, the larger portion at 6½ a 6¾; last year 4½ a 5½ were the ruling rates. The heavy advance in hemp, of course, led to this result. As well as we can ascertain, the quantity manufactured in St. Louis amounts to from 14,000 to 15,000 coils—of this the Lowell Factory, in the northern part of the city, turned out 11,000, the greater part of which found sale in this market. Missouri rope gained its standard the past season for excellence of quality, and was eagerly sought by Southern buyers. Our manufacturers have certainly equal opportunities to compete successfully with others, and superior advantages in the procurement of the raw material. The demand for Missouri hemp on the Ohio river is yearly becoming greater, owing to the heavy establishments in operation there, and still increasing, in this line of business, as well as in that of hackling hemp for the Northern markets; and if these can bear an extra charge of transportation, there is nothing to prevent entire success in this State.

R. W. S. Allen, of Kentucky, and J. H. Alexander & Co., McClelland, Scruggs & Co., and Douglass & Bier, of St. Louis, have purchased of W. A. Richardson, of Louisville, the Perry and Slaughter Patent for making bale-rope and hackling hemp. The right includes the whole of Missouri and the western half of Illinois. Operations will be commenced about the first of April, with machinery sufficient to turn out 100 coils rope and three tons hackled hemp per day. The annual consumption of hemp will be from two to three thousand tons. The intention now is to increase the quantity of machinery during the year. The cost of patent and machinery alone is about \$30,000.

We give the prices of the year, embracing Nos. 1 and 2, as follows:—

January	\$5 75 a	July	\$5 75 a	6 50
February	5 75 a	6 25	August	6 25 a	6 50
March	6 00 a	6 50	September	6 25 a	6 75
April	6 00 a	6 50	October	6 50 a	6 75
May	5 50 a	6 25	November	6 50 a	7 00
June	5 50 a	6 50	December	6 50 a	6 75

We believe the entire operations in this department, outside of St. Louis, in this section of country, are confined to the Penitentiaries of Illinois and Missouri. The supply, therefore, is by no means equal to the demand. This difficulty will now be likely met. J. L. Blaine, of St. Louis, erected an establishment during the past summer in this city, which is now in successful operation. With new

machinery, and the delays and impediments attendant upon an enterprise of the kind, he has already manufactured 100,000 yards. The experiment will prove a successful one, no doubt, the proprietor being experienced in the business. Those throughout the country, therefore, who require bagging, will remember that a manufactory is now established in St. Louis.

TOBACCO. Receipts this year show an aggregate of 10,198 hhds., less by 3,855 than those of 1852. Sales at the warehouses (Planters' and State) stand thus: Planters, 3,451; State, 1,895—less than last year, 2,741. The following table exhibits the operations at the two houses for eight years past:—

	Planters'.	State Warehouse.
1846.....	2,573	971
1847.....	3,854	1,236
1848.....	3,184	1,083
1849.....	4,983	867
1850.....	4,169	62
1851.....	4,195	796
1852.....	5,776	2,311
1853.....	3,451	1,895

This staple alone, we believe, of all the agricultural products of the country, shows an important deficit. The cause is to be traced to the limited attention it received from the regular as well as irregular planters. Other articles, at the time of planting, bore more remunerative prices, and to such the labor of the farmer was principally directed.

We believe, however, that the sales at the warehouses in St. Louis, for the year just closed, realized nearly, if not quite as much money as those of 1852. With the deficit given, and the range of prices for the two seasons as shown in the following statement, the cash receipts, relatively, may be understood with sufficient certainty:—

RANGE OF PRICES FOR 1852.

	Lugs, factory.	Planters' do.	Leaf, infer. to common.	Fair to fine.	Choice and selected.	Manufac- turing.
January.....	2 a 2½	2½ a 3	3 a 4	4 a 5
February.....	2 a 2½	2½ a 3	3 a 4	4 a 5
March.....	2½ a 2¾	2½ a 3½	3½ a 4	4 a 5	5 a 6
April.....	2½ a 2½	2½ a 3	3 a 3½	3½ a 4	4 a 5	5 a 9
May.....	2½ a 2½	2½ a 3	3 a 3½	3½ a 4	4 a 5	5 a 15
June.....	2½ a 3	3 a 3½	3½ a 3½	3½ a 4	4 a 5	6 a 15
July.....	2½ a 3	3 a 3½	3½ a 3½	3½ a 4	4 a 5	6 a 15
August.....	3 a 3½	3½ a 4	4 a 4½	5 a 5½	5½ a 6½	6 a 15
September.....	3½ a 4½	4 a 4½	4½ a 5	5 a 5½	5½ a 5½	6 a 15
October.....	3½ a 4	4 a 4½	4½ a 5	5 a 5½	5½ a 5½	6 a 15
November.....	3½ a 3½	3½ a 4½	4½ a 4½	4½ a 5	5 a 5½	6 a 15
December.....	3½ a 4	4 a 4½	4½ a 4½	6 a 15

RANGE OF PRICES FOR 1853.

	Lugs.	Seconds.	Fair to fine shipping.	Manufacturing.
January.....	\$3 00 a \$4 00	\$4 00 a \$4 50	\$4 75 a \$5 50	\$8 00 a \$10 00
February.....	3 60 a 3 95
March.....	3 50 a 4 00	4 25 a 4 80	5 55 a 6 00
April.....	3 50 a 4 75	4 60 a 5 50	5 75 a 6 50	6 00 a 10 00
May.....	4 25 a 5 15	5 00 a 5 60	5 75 a 7 00	6 00 a 11 50
June.....	3 75 a 4 75	4 80 a 5 25	5 50 a 6 75	6 00 a 13 00
July.....	4 50 a 5 60	5 00 a 6 00	6 50 a 8 50	6 50 a 16 00
August.....	4 75 a 5 60	5 50 a 6 50	6 25 a 8 25	7 00 a 15 00
September.....	4 75 a 5 65	5 50 a 6 50	6 50 a 8 00
October.....	5 00 a 5 75	5 75 a 6 75	7 00 a 8 50
November.....	4 65 a 5 50

The statement is taken from actual sales. Lugs are quoted from common shipping to manufacturing, and so with seconds. Manufacturing leaf would have brought the extreme price for the same quality at any time to the close.

In May, 1853, it was generally understood that the growing crop in Virginia, Kentucky, Tennessee, and Missouri, would prove at least one-third short of that of the preceding season. This stimulated the market—speculators came in and bought freely, and prices rose in consequence to very high figures. The expectation of a short crop will be realized, but subsequent events have, in a great measure, neutralized the effects the deficit was calculated to produce. High freights, monetary difficulties, together with European disturbances, have limited the demand. Perhaps 1,000 hogsheads purchased on speculation, are still in store in this city. The quality of the crop was good—fully an average—about one-half lugs, the other half shipping and manufacturing, in the usual proportions.

Taking the above tables of the prices of the two years, and estimating a hog-head of lugs at 1,600 pounds net, shipping at 1,500, and manufacturing at 1,200, it will be found that the money derived from the crop just closed out (although deficient 2,741 hogsheads,) will nearly equal the sum obtained for that of the preceding season.

Of the amount received, 8,084 hogsheads came from the Missouri, 1,972 from the Mississippi, 5 from the Illinois, 47 from the Ohio, by the Pacific Railroad 48.

LEAD. The product of the Upper Mississippi Mines for the year just closed exhibits but a slight increase on that of 1852—say 17,186 pigs, equal to 1,203,020 pounds.

The following statistics have been furnished by a gentleman of Galena, who is intimately acquainted with this branch of business. They embrace the amounts produced for twelve years past, from 1842 to 1853, inclusive, together with the entire shipments per river and lakes:—

STATISTICS OF THE LEAD TRADE OF THE UPPER MISSISSIPPI.

Years.	Pigs produced.	Equal to pounds.	Price 1,000 lbs. mineral.	Price 100 lbs. lead.	Value at Galena.
1842.....	447,909	31,353,630	\$12 85	\$2 24	\$702,321 31
1843.....	559,261	39,148,270	12 60	2 34	916,069 51
1844.....	624,672	43,727,040	16 88	2 80	1,224,357 13
1845.....	778,498	54,494,860	17 67	2 96	1,613,047 88
1846.....	732,403	51,268,210	17 83	2 89	1,481,651 26
1847.....	772,656	54,085,920	19 16	3 17	1,714,523 68
1848.....	681,969	47,737,830	19 82	3 24	1,546,705 69
1849.....	628,934	44,025,380	22 18	3 67	1,615,731 44
1850.....	568,589	39,801,230	24 10	4 20	1,671,651 66
1851.....	474,115	33,188,050	25 51	4 08	1,354,062 44
1852.....	408,628	28,603,960	25 87	4 12	1,178,483 05
1853.....	425,814	29,806,980	34 41	5 50	1,639,383 90
Total.....	7,108,448	497,241,860	16,657,988 94

SHIPMENTS OF LEAD FROM THE UPPER MINES DURING THE SEASON OF 1853, FROM MARCH 21ST TO DECEMBER 1ST.

Ports from whence shipped.	Pigs.	Pounds.	Value.
Shipped via the river,			
From Galena.....	318,543	22,298,010	\$1,226,340 55
Dubuque.....	43,852	3,069,640	168,830 20
Potosi.....	23,086	1,616,020	88,881 10
Cassville.....	14,186	993,020	54,616 10
Buena Vista.....	2,676	187,320	10,352 60
Shipped via the lakes.....	28,471	1,642,970	90,363 25
Totals.....	425,814	29,806,980	\$1,639,383 90

The receipts at this port, as given in our general table, aggregate 441,889 pigs, against 409,314 last year. Of this, 5,315 came from the Missouri, and the balance from the Upper and Lower Mississippi. The Galena table gives the quantity shipped per river at 402,343—deduct from this the Missouri receipts, and the balance, it is fair to suppose, came from the lower mines—say 34,231 pigs.

Prices are advancing each year, as will be observed by the general statement furnished above. That statement has reference to Galena rates. At this point they are relatively as progressive. In our last annual report we gave a running account of the prices for 1852, as follows: From the first of January to near the close of March \$4 25 was the rate, when it fell to \$4 20, and at the commencement of April declined to \$4 10; about the middle of April it rose to \$4 15, and continued to rise gradually until the latter part of May, when it attained \$4 50; from this time until the last of June it alternately stood at \$4 45 and \$4 50, and in July fell to \$4 35 and \$4 30, and thus remained until the middle of August, when it ruled at \$4 40; in the early part of September a permanent advance commenced, and at the close \$4 50 was reached, which was held until the middle of November, when it went up to \$4 75; during the early part of December it ruled firmly at \$4 87½, and towards the middle at \$5, at the close \$5 25, at which price our report closed, noticing a decided upward tendency.

We give herewith, in a briefer form, the ruling prices of 1851 and the year just closed:—

	1851.		1852.	
January	\$4 37½	to \$4 40	\$5 50	to \$5 75
February	4 37½	4 40	6 00	6 75
March	4 40	4 45	6 50	7 00
April	4 25	4 35	5 50	6 00
May	4 15	4 20	6 05	6 50
June	4 25	4 30	5 40	6 10
July	4 25	4 30	5 35	5 50
August	4 25	4 35	5 30	5 35
September	4 20	...	5 35	5 87½
October	4 05	4 10	6 00	6 50
November	4 12½	4 50	6 35	6 50
December	4 25	4 30	6 35	6 87½

However slight the increase this year, it is important as showing the first symptom of a favorable reaction noticed for several years. In 1847 the trade exceeded that of the preceding year, (1846,) but since that period the decline has not been gradual, but rapid, falling from 772,656 pigs, in 1847, to 408,628, in 1852. This season this decline was arrested, and it is reasonable to suppose the trade will return to its former magnitude. The causes to which these effects were traced are becoming less powerful. Mining in California is losing now the attractions it at first wore, and emigration to that region does not swell its ranks, as formerly, with the most enterprising men engaged in the Upper Mississippi lead mines. Remunerative prices, too, will induce a more thorough and extensive system of working; shafts will be sunk below the water level in the small beds of rock; a general interest will be taken by all classes for increasing the product, as well those who work for wages as others, by reason of increased prices; the proper machinery for draining will be procured, and capital and knowledge employed for a better and more extensive prosecution of the business. At the prices which now rule, a marked improvement in this branch of industry may be fully anticipated.

As regards operations at the Lower Mines, we regret that no data has been furnished on which to base a reliable statement.

FLOUR. Transactions in flour, as per table, will be found far in advance of those of last year—say 68,870 bbls., to which must be added 3,393 sks., equal to 1,700 bbls.—making the difference between the two years 70,570 bbls. Total aggregate of receipts per river, 200,203 bbls., and 3,393 sks.; last year 131,333 bbls. Of these receipts, 45,131 bbls. came from the Illinois River, 9,264 do. and 798 sks. from the Missouri, 2,090 do. and 36 sks. by Ohio boats, 143,718 do. and 2,530 sks. from the Mississippi.

Scarcity of cooorage during a portion of the season compelled shipments to be made in bags. So much for the river. Below will be found a comparative statement of the manufacture of flour by St. Louis mills for three years past:—

	1851.	1852.	1853.		1851.	1852.	1853.
Nonantum	19,518	6,000	Chouteau	9,700	2,100
Atlantic	27,268	41,284	49,800	Park	32,000	33,323	38,695
Phenix	5,284	6,560	7,500	Washington ...	13,500	15,000
O'Fallon	12,356	16,943	18,700	Franklin	12,160	16,000	24,500
Pacific	39,760	10,000	15,600	Union	23,909	33,000	39,500
Magnolia	16,300	Missouri	4,873	31,200	42,000
Eagle	31,700	28,564	30,750	Cherry-street..	9,000	800	21,000
Saxony	16,700	10,600	12,500	United States..	46,000	59,000	55,000
Empire	35,043	5,000	33,350				
Star	14,823	38,000	19,800				
Planters'	38,200	29,810	48,881				
					408,099	383,184	457,976

Receipts per wagons, as far as ascertained, aggregate 80,220 bbls., swelling the total brought to and manufactured in St. Louis for 1853, to 737,500. This, as before observed, is largely in advance of last year's operations; the amount nearly reaches the trade of 1848.

Last year closed with country superfine at \$4 50, and city brands superfine nominally at \$4 75 to \$5. The following table shows the range for 1851 and 1852:—

	1851.	1852.		1851.	1852.
Jan....	\$3 87½ a 4 50	\$3 75 a 4 00	July...	\$3 75 a 4 50	\$3 25 a 3 35
Feb....	3 75 a 4 60	3 75 a 2 87½	Aug....	3 75 a 4 50	3 60 a 3 65
March...	3 60 a 4 50	3 65 a 3 75	Sept....	3 60 a 4 37	3 35 a 3 50
April...	3 50 a 4 50	3 50 a 3 75	Oct....	3 50 a 4 50	3 40 a 3 60
May....	3 50 a 4 50	3 55 a 4 75	Nov....	3 40 a 4 50	3 65 a 3 90
June...	3 60 a 4 50	3 75 a 4 00	Dec....	3 75 a 4 75	4 00 a 4 50

The range for the year just closed, (1853,) compiled from our semi-weekly reviews, predicated on actual sales, is as follows:—

	City superfine.	Country superfine.	City extra.	Country extra.
January	\$4 62½ to \$4 80	4 35 to 4 75	5 00 to	4 75 to 5 00
February ...	4 10 to 4 37½	4 00 to 4 25 to	4 75 to 5 00
March	3 80 to 4 00	3 55 to 4 00	4 75 to	4 20 to 4 75
April	3 80 to 4 00	3 75 to 3 90	4 75 to 5 00	4 25 to 4 50
May	3 85 to 4 25	3 75 to 4 15	4 75 to 5 00	4 37½ to 4 75
June	3 90 to 4 12½	3 75 to 4 10	4 50 to 5 25	4 25 to 4 50
July	4 25 to 5 00	4 00 to 4 70	4 75 to 5 25	4 50 to 5 00
August	4 50 to 5 25	4 25 to 5 00	5 50 to 5 75	4 50 to 5 12½
September to	4 15 to 4 75 to	4 75 to 5 25
October	5 50 to 6 00	5 00 to 5 80	6 00 to 6 50	5 50 to 6 12½
November ..	5 75 to 6 00	5 50 to 5 75	6 25 to 6 50	5 75 to 6 00
December ..	5 50 to 6 00	5 25 to 6 00	6 00 to 6 50	5 75 to 6 25

Occasional fluctuations are observable, but a steady advance has distinguished the market since May. Intelligence of short crops in Europe was at first exceedingly contradictory, at one time raising and at another depressing prices, and this will account for the variableness, to some extent, which the history of the season sets forth. After the fact was established that a heavy deficit marked the European supply, impediments were presented at home in the way of low waters, and consequent high freights, made still more formidable by a terrible epidemic at New Orleans, and thus were continued, until the close of the year, the shades of difference which rates show. That a demand exists in England and on the continent for the whole American surplus, is hardly now questioned; and it is not probable, under such circumstances, that flour can fall below closing rates until the coming harvest.

For a greater portion of the summer the Ohio River was too low for navigation, and the Southern demand drew its supplies almost entirely from this section. This sustained the market materially under the high transportation charges which ruled at the time, and the depression occasioned by the yellow fever.

The latest steamer from Europe brings favorable news. Previous advices, during the month just closed, had a depressing effect, two consecutive arrivals having announced a decline. This, with high freights, checked speculation to a considerable extent, and rates went down to \$5 25 for superfine inspected.

St. Louis brands maintain their high reputation. Coast orders are generally filled by these qualities. The coast trade is steadily on the increase, deserving the attention of our business men, and will doubtless elicit an interest commensurate with its increasing importance. On the market, at the close, 130,000 bushels wheat and 40,000 barrels flour.

WHEAT. Good crops and a heavy demand have this year brought forward a much larger amount than last year's statistics show—the increase approaches half a million of bushels. Total amount of receipts per river (spot up 1,007,467 sks. and 17,267 bbls. Estimating a sack at 2, and a barrel at 3½ bushels, the result is 2,072,491 bushels. Last year's receipts, 1,663,422; difference, 409,069. The Illinois River sent out this season 455,375 sks. and 13,412 bbls., the Missouri 104,917 sks. and 529 bbls. The Mississippi, 436,937 sks. and 2,139 bbls. Ohio River boats brought, (from the Wabash, we presume, principally,) 10,238 sks. and 1,187 bbls. In 1847 and 1848 receipts were 2,432,377 and 2,194,780 bushels respectively. Since then, until arrested this year, trade in this grain has shown a falling off. We give the statement, commencing with 1846:—

1846.	1847.	1848.	1849.	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
1,838,925	2,432,377	2,194,786	1,792,535	1,900,088	1,700,708	1,663,422	2,068,893

It is generally conceded that the growing crop bids fair to be a good one—more than an average. Should the present European disturbances continue and become more widely spread, supplies will be drawn liberally from this country without a doubt, and the transactions of 1854 will equal, perhaps exceed to a considerable extent, those of the year just terminated. At any rate, the country will have been stripped of its surplus, and the new crop will have nothing in this way to contend with. Although the navigation of the upper streams was suspended by ice several days in the past month, the receipts for the fractional portion of December aggregate a large amount, showing that the supplies above are not yet exhausted. Remunerative prices justify an extensive land carriage, and sections remote from navigable rivers, under this influence, contribute large additions to the market.

The new crop came forward in good time; the first samples commanded from \$1 to \$1 05. During the season large orders were received on foreign account; they were promptly filled in several instances, embracing the best qualities, at from 115 to 125c., including sacks. Buyers were limited, and the temporary depressions in the market enabled them to obtain suitable lots at the required figures. The year closes with an unusually light stock in the hands of millers, and in store—say 130,000 bushels.

Herewith will be found a monthly statement of receipts in sacks and barrels for 1852 and 1853:—

	1852.		1853.	
	Sacks.	Bbls.	Sacks.	Bbls.
January.....	17,190	58	60,319	2,270
February.....	70,428	1,546	48,044	2,456
March.....	102,140	1,826	60,181	1,874
April.....	94,914	1,725	79,186	2,062
May.....	58,736	1,878	87,225	898
June.....	63,039	2,397	84,906	1,051
July.....	44,799	863	88,051	1,079
August.....	51,237	875	90,291	482
September.....	61,772	2,816	72,332	962
October.....	74,259	1,452	107,354	636
November.....	104,661	1,788	116,816	1,123
December.....	68,703	1,651	119,483	2,384
Total.....	801,928	17,870	1,009,188	17,267

RULING RATES OF THE MARKET FOR THE PAST THREE YEARS, EMBRACING THE HIGHEST AND LOWEST SALES:—

	1851.	1852.	1853.		1851.	1852.	1853.
Jan.....	75 to 80	70 to 85	85 to 100	July ...	65 to 80	65 to 70	50 to 105
Feb.....	70	80 62 85	65 90	Aug....	70 80	62 79	65 94
March...	70	90 65	80 64 95	Sept....	60 70	69 75	63 100
April...	60	80 55	80 50 90	Oct.....	70 76	70 75	75 125
May ...	70	85 70	81 60 105	Nov....	70 75	65 75	75 120
June ...	65	78 75	82 55 105	Dec.. ..	75 82	85 100	85 125

From the above table it will be observed that prices ruled much higher for 1853 than for the two preceding years. In making the money difference between the transactions of the three seasons, therefore, the result in favor of the year just closed becomes more apparent. The lowest figures for 1853 were for a comparatively small amount; good and prime red commanded steadily, on an average, the last six months, from 100 to 110c. per bushel, and white 101 to 125c.

CORN. Our table of receipts shows an increase this year over last of 114,473 sacks. The total amount is 459,192 sacks, against 344,720 for 1852. Of this the Illinois River furnished 163,813, the Missouri 31,378, the Mississippi, 264,001.

The following statement exhibits the monthly receipts for the two years mentioned:—

	1852.	1853.		1852.	1853.
January.....	17,810	July.....	33,003	54,646
February.....	30,031	14,074	August.....	17,160	74,838
March.....	53,502	27,211	September.....	7,324	35,323
April.....	54,487	43,785	October.....	9,791	24,496
May.....	42,397	51,084	November.....	22,057	21,541
June.....	58,093	64,395	December.....	16,875	30,488
Total.....				344,720	459,192

For the sake of convenience we give in this connection the range of prices for three years past:—

	1851.	1852.	1853.		1851.	1852.	1853.
Jan.....	44 to 48c.	38 to 41c.	35 45	July.....	38 to 43c.	35 to 48c.	36 to 59
Feb.....	41 46	30 42	32 39	August..	35 40	40 45	39 61
March ..	35 40	32 37	31 37	Sept....	38 38	40 45	39 50
April...	35 40	33 36	30 42	October..	35 40	40 45	38 54
May....	34 38	30 43	35 44	Nov....	31 36	43 50	37 46
June ...	33 36	35 44	37 48	Dec.....	35 40	41 43	34 44

It will be observed that prices for 1853 ruled generally higher throughout the entire year, with the exception of December. Operations would, without doubt, have been on a more extended scale, but for the impediments of which we have already spoken in another place, viz., low water, and the epidemic below, with consequent high freights. In August freights attained to 40c. per sack, while previous to that they ranged from 12½ to 25. Shipments became limited, as rates below afforded no margin for profits, and with the want of a general supply at New Orleans, and the prevailing sickness, the usual orders to that port were transferred, and the trade became dull. This dullness continued to the close, and holders here stored for a better time. During the season a good demand sprung up on the Ohio River. Distillers in that section bought heavy lots, and by this means, to some extent, the trade was enlarged, and prices maintained, as shown in the above tables.

OATS. This grain also shows a heavy increase on the receipts of 1852—say over 141,000 sacks. Annexed is the monthly statements for the two seasons:—

	1852.	1853.		1852.	1853.
January	873	13,369	July	35,389	28,937
February	12,650	16,295	August	36,338	48,555
March	12,612	23,891	September	15,275	40,608
April	40,736	40,343	October	20,803	45,195
May	52,112	42,129	November	27,866	61,990
June	56,621	47,994	December	10,735	54,458
Total				322,110	463,760

Leaving a balance in favor of the year just expired of 141,750 sacks. The Illinois contributed to this aggregate 121,939 sacks, the Missouri, 3,910, the Mississippi 337,820, and 93 sacks came by Ohio River boats. We append a table exhibiting the range of prices for three years past:—

	1851.	1852.	1853.		1851.	1852.	1853.
Jan....	45 to 50c.	29 to 30c.	36 to 43	July ..	30 to 31c.	30 to 32c.	34 to 41c.
Feb....	52 53	22 26	30 37	August.	25 26	25 29	29 40
March ..	45 47	22 26	31 36	Sept... 26	27 28	29 30	30 34
April... 36	40 24	27 32	35 35	Oct.... 25	26 31	41 31	39 39
May.... 35	37 26	29 33	38 38	Nov.... 26	27 31	41 35	40 40
June ... 31	33 29	30 32	39 39	Dec... 30	32 41	42 34½	37½ 37½

Prices improved, it will be observed, with the accession of supplies, ranging above the general rates of both preceding years. A light demand came from the Ohio River, and some shipments were made in that direction. High freights with the prostration of business of the South during the summer months, affected oats materially, but for which these transactions would have been much larger.

BARLEY. A monthly exhibit of the amount of this grain received for the two past years, although the article adds comparatively little to the Commerce of the city, may not be uninteresting:—

	1852.	1853.		1852.	1853.
January	594	5,220	July	584	322
February	903	676	August	2,355	1,965
March	6,500	8,830	September	5,139	6,148
April	5,427	17,986	October	4,653	4,693
May	2,807	7,934	November	12,023	7,723
June	376	2,254	December	4,470	8,231
Total				45,831	62,032

Showing a difference in favor of the year just closed of 16,201 sacks. Of the amount received, the Illinois River furnished 2,572 sacks, the Missouri 226, the Ohio, 6,221, the Mississippi 53,013. The soil and climate of Iowa are well adapted to the cultivation of barley, and hence the comparatively large receipts from the Upper Mississippi. During the year, an impetus was given to the article by the purchase of large lots for the New York market, and prices advanced from the low rates ruling at the time.

Subjoined will be noticed the ruling monthly prices for the year 1853; the prices of 1852 were not given in the last annual report:—

	1853.		1853.
January	50 to 58	July	38 to 45
February	50 ..	August	50 55
March	45 46	September	47 55
April	30 50	October	47 55
May	37½ 40	November	60 62½
June	37½ 45½	December	58 60

Our city manufacturers are not able as yet, it appears, to appropriate the stock which reaches this market, limited as it is. Large lots of receipts this year were shipped to New York, and it seems the Ohio furnished us over 6,221 sacks of barley, and 10,000 bbls. ale.

RYE. The table of monthly receipts herewith given shows a large increase in this cereal also:—

	1852.		1853.
January.....sacks.	49	July.....sacks.	713
February.....	59	August.....	2,109
March.....	938	September.....	1,335
April.....	1,882	October.....	1,380
May.....	2,560	November.....	1,273
June.....	2,017	December.....	432
Total.....			14,747

Of this amount, 797 sacks came by the Illinois River, 120 by the Missouri, 42 by the Ohio, and the balance, 13,788, by the Mississippi. Last year (1852) receipts were stated at 6,904 bushels. According to this, the year just closed has more than quadrupled the amount; and rye, in the way of accession, comparatively, is in advance of other grains.

We give the monthly prices, taken from actual transactions during the year:—

	1852.		1853.
January.....	40 to 50	July.....	50 to 54
February.....	45 ..	August.....	45 50
March.....	50 55	September.....	46 43
April.....	47 55	October.....	50 53
May.....	50 55	November.....	55 60
June.....	50 62	December.....	48 58

Last year (1852) the range was from 48 to 55. With the greater difference, therefore, in supplies, rates were much higher during the season just closed.

BRAN. We refer to the general table of receipts for the amount of this article brought forward, per river, during the year just ended. No data is preserved by which to institute a comparison with the business of former years; but from the increase in flour already noticed for 1853, it may be supposed a corresponding increase was also effected in bran.

The ruling monthly prices for the year will be found in the following table:—

	1852.		1853.
January.....	65 to 70	July.....	67½ to 73
February.....	55 70	August.....	50 70
March.....	55 60	September.....	46 55
April.....	65 ..	October.....	54 68
May.....	November.....	62½ 70
June.....	65 75	December.....	62½ 75

The above prices are per 100 lbs., including sacks. No sale during the month of May is to be found in our reviews of the market.

PROVISIONS AND LARD. Operations in this department of trade do not show so favorably for the year just closed as those in others already noticed. Farmers realized high prices for their hogs, but buyers generally sunk money on the products. The history of the season's transactions is a very plain one, and can be given in few words.

A prevalent opinion was entertained at the opening, that the stock of hogs in the country did not exceed to any great extent the amount of the previous year, and that this excess would be counterbalanced by a deficiency in weight, supposed to exist, of some 10 to 15 per cent. The result showed an increase of 480,000 hogs, with a deduction of only 5 per cent for light weight—equal to a difference, as compared with the crop of 1851-2, of 380,000 head. The number packed in the following different States, for the two past seasons, is thus given by the Cincinnati *Price Current*:—

	1851-2.	1852-3.		1851-2.	1852-3.
Ohio.....No.	547,373	603,152	Illinois.....No.	231,519	324,850
Indiana.....	447,352	590,945	Iowa.....	40,500	52,850
Kentucky.....	205,600	338,200	Missouri.....	69,436	87,200
Tennessee.....	10,000	36,500	Michigan.....	10,800	10,400
Total.....				1,562,580	2,044,097

Hogs. Prices, at the beginning, opened at \$4 75 to \$5, and by the 1st of December reached \$6; from this they gradually rose to \$6 10, \$6 25, \$6 30, and \$6 40, and the year (1852) closed with rates as high as \$6 50. Mess pork, which had ruled high from June to October, (say \$18 to \$20 per bbl.) encountered a temporary check in the latter month, but rallied again to its highest price about the beginning of the packing season, and closed out briskly and firmly at this figure. This gave an impulse to the speculative feeling abroad, which was further stimulated by an unprecedented Eastern demand for green meats. Buyers from the Atlantic cities operated largely. They purchased the products at an advance on the price of hogs, and by this means the rates were buoyed up and sustained. It is hardly necessary to say that all these eastern speculators were more or less injured by such operations, and many of them ruined. Several lots of meat purchased by them in this market, were subsequently resold here at a loss of 25 to 30 per cent. As soon as this demand subsided, a general panic pervaded the market, and prices toppled lower and lower, as the range given in our tabular statement will show. Several operators at this point, as well as elsewhere, made purchases at the early decline, for the purpose of grading the cost of their stock to a saving point; but they only became the more deeply involved in their struggle at extrication, and finally wound up with a net loss of about 33 per cent. The money lost, however, remained in the country—in the hands of the agriculturists.

The present season commenced under entirely different circumstances from those that marked the opening of the last. Operators had just emerged from disastrous transactions—the hog crop was believed to be large—old meats closed out at a decline, with a dull market, and money was difficult to obtain. To this time these considerations still have weight. Buyers have been unwilling, so far, to pay over \$4 net, and but few lots have commanded higher rates. Sellers were and are still, in a great many instances, unwilling to submit to this price, and the number of hogs killed is not equal to that of last year at the same time. This effect is apparent in many other places. Business this season may equal that of last, (60,000 head,) but to go beyond this to any extent will require no little activity during the time yet remaining for operations.

For future reference, we give the amounts packed at the different prominent points in Illinois, Iowa, and Missouri:—

ILLINOIS.

	1851-2.	1852-3.		1851-2.	1852-3.
Shawneetown	4,000	16,000	Barry	3,400	8,500
Beardstown	24,400	37,700	Pittsfield	1,500	2,000
Knoxville	650	200	Perry	4,276	5,173
Quincy	17,500	15,000	Lacon	11,850	6,500
Lawrenceville	1,100	2,650	Henry	600	4,000
Naples	2,880	1,157	Peoria	17,000	38,000
Exeter	1,400	600	Rushville	2,600	2,750
Macomb	3,000	3,900	Frederick	1,200	1,500
Blandinsville	1,100	500	Springfield	10,000	22,000
Middletown	600	none.	Lagrange	1,930	2,500
Alton	25,000	27,000	Oquawka	6,500	5,800
Ottawa	1,355	1,344	Warsaw and Ham-		
Pekin	16,000	10,000	ilton	3,500	7,000
Graysville	2,990	5,456	Monmouth	7,976	8,400
Albion	3,000	2,200	Galena	5,000	6,000
Phillipstown	900	600	Meredosia	5,267	2,000
Canton	8,378	8,361	Peru	1,400	3,000
Rockport	2,678	2,965	Fulton County	17,100	18,100
New Canton	none.	1,500	Chicago	13,000	50,000
Total				231,669	324,856

IOWA.

	1851-2.	1852-3.		1851-2.	1852-3.
Dubuque.....	5,800	7,500	Iowa City.....	4,000	5,500
Muscatine.....	8,000	13,000	Fort Madison.....	500	4,500
Davenport.....	2,000	3,000	Burlington.....	11,000	6,000
Keokuk.....	10,000	14,000			
Total				40,500	58,500

MISSOURI.

	1851-2.	1852-3.		1851-2.	1852-3.
St. Louis.....	47,000	60,000	Lagrange.....	3,500	2,500
Hannibal.....	7,876	11,500	Palmyra.....	2,000	3,200
Alexandria.....	5,000	7,000	Louisiana.....	3,000	3,000
Frankford.....	80	none.			
Total				69,486	87,200

WHISKY. A comparative statement of the receipts of 1852 and 1853, exhibits an increase in the transactions of the latter. The following is the monthly statement:—

	1852.	1853.		1852.	1853.
January.....	666	2,858	July.....	3,943	3,764
February.....	4,702	4,401	August.....	2,501	4,188
March.....	6,831	5,908	September.....	1,835	3,756
April.....	4,814	5,835	October.....	5,064	3,519
May.....	4,647	4,916	November.....	4,390	4,706
June.....	3,472	3,255	December.....	2,903	2,668
				45,568	49,774

Prices for the year just ended ruled much higher, also, as the following statement proves:—

	1852.	1853.
January.....	16 to 18	19 to 19½
February.....	15½ to 16	18 to 19
March.....	15½ to 16½	17½ to 19½
April.....	15½ to ..	17½ to 18½
May.....	16½ to 17	18½ to 19
June.....	16 to 17½	19 to 22
July.....	16½ to 17½	22 to 24
August.....	17 to 20	22 to 24
September.....	18½ to 19	22 to 22½
October.....	16 to 18½	22½ to 26
November.....	18½ to 20	20½ to 23½
December.....	19½ to ..	20 to 22½

Of the amount received for 1853, 20,335 barrels came from the Illinois River, 291 from the Missouri, 2,127 from the Ohio, and 27,021 from the Mississippi.

GROCERIES. Under this head are included sugars, molasses, syrup, and coffee. As per table it will be observed that the importations of the year embrace 50,774 hhds., 13,993 bbls., and 40,257 boxes and bags of sugar, 53,554 bbls. and hhds. molasses, 868 bbls. syrup, and 104,467 bags of coffee. This is largely in advance of last year's imports, given as follows: Sugars 35,283 hhds., 27,672 bbls. and boxes, 31,745 bags; coffee 96,240 sks.; molasses 54,933 bbls. and hhds. The crop of sugar for the year 1852 was a heavy one, and a large part of the surplus was forwarded to this section. Navigation being unobstructed in the early part of the season, gave opportunity for shipments. The receipts exhibit large amounts during the first months of the year—say for January 6,539, February 5,546, March 12,615 hhds. We refer to the general table for facts in relation to monthly imports and the aggregate amount brought forward.*

* For this table see "COMMERCIAL STATISTICS" in present number of the *Merchants' Magazine*.

New Sugar was received at this point about the 24th of October, 1852, and brought 6c. By the first of December it declined to 4½c., at which it remained until January, 1853, when it fell still further, say to 4½ and 4¼c. for fair, and continued thus until the 1st of February: it then gradually advanced, and by the close of that month reached 5c., when the market became full and the rate went to 4½, then to 4¼, at which it ruled until about the middle of August, when it rallied again and sold during September as high as 5½; in October prices once more declined, and by the last of November sales of old were made at 4¼ for prime. Operations for sugar during the year resulted in a net loss of 25 per cent. The crop for 1853-4 is said to be equal to that of the preceding season.

Molasses opened at 30c. in November, but in December and January it had declined to 26; it rallied again and touched 30 in February, after which it went down, and during the spring and summer ranged at 28, and 25 at close; and in the fall a further decline was effected, until in November it reached 21c.

Coffee started at 9¼c. in January, and advanced to 11 by February, holding this position through March; after this it declined to 9½ and 10c., and thus remained until September, when it went up gradually, and at the close has reached the price of 13c.

As regards salt, we refer to table of receipts and general prices.

FRUIT. Receipts will be found heavy. We give below the number of sacks received, referring to the general table for other particulars under this head. Large quantities of dried fruit came in barrels and boxes, but as no distinction was made in manifests between green and dried apples in such packages, we confine the statement in this place to sacks.

January	1,385	July	235
February	1,904	August	350
March	3,856	September	2,024
April	3,656	October	3,362
May	1,655	November	3,237
June	499	December	3,280
Total			25,448

It may not prove uninteresting, as showing the progress of fruit culture in this region, to give the different amounts from the different rivers. From the Missouri were received 6,287 sacks, from the Mississippi 8,874, the Ohio 10,014, and the Illinois 268. A very large proportion from the Mississippi was from points below St. Louis, brought principally by the Cairo packets. This State appears to be in advance of that of any other adjacent section in this line. Fruit from the Missouri River is held in higher reputation, and the cultivation of apple orchards particularly has evidently received from the farmers on that stream deserved and early attention. The following are the ruling rates of the year:—

DRIED APPLES.

January	\$1 45	to	1 50	July	to
February	1 40	to	1 62	August	75	to
March	1 35	to	1 50	September	60	to	75
April	90	to	1 35	October	70	to	75
May	70	to	1 00	November	70	to	85
June	75	to	80	December	85	to	95

DRIED PEACHES.

January	\$1 82½	to	2 75	July	to
February	2 75	to	August	to
March	2 75	to	September	\$1 00	to	1 05
April	2 37½	to	2 75	October	1 00	to	1 25
May	2 25	to	2 37½	November	1 00	to	1 10
June	2 25	to	December	1 15	to	1 20

SEED AND BEANS. The general table above will show the receipts of seed per river. From the principal oil manufactory in St. Louis we learn that 22,931

bushels of flaxseed were received during the year just closed, by wagons, and that the increase over the previous year's receipts amounts to 8,880 bushels. This article is likely to become one of great importance to the agriculturist. We annex an account of a new method already discovered for rendering the stalk available.

Three or four weeks since we published an article on the subject of flax and flaxseed, and its cultivation in this and adjoining States, not for the seed alone—which, it seems, makes in itself a good crop—but with a view to the sale of the fiber. We then stated that gentlemen had appeared in this market ready to give the highest prices for flax in its prepared state—\$250 per ton—and that this price ought to insure its increased cultivation. Since then, numerous letters have been addressed to us, showing the interest taken by farmers in the subject—making inquiries which we think it best to answer in this general way. The gentleman who was then more particularly referred to as being ready to make contracts, is now in Philadelphia, where he is a partner in the "American Linen Manufacturing Company," with a capital of \$500,000, of which sum \$350,000 is paid in and invested in the buildings and machinery.

This gentleman—Mr. Thomas Kimber, Jr.—will gladly, we are assured, answer all inquiries addressed to him on the subject of the cultivation of flax, and its preparation for market. He has made it the subject of his study for some years, and is very familiar with it. There are several machines in use for the preparation of flax for market, and we have before said that inquiries addressed to any one in Washington County, N. Y., where flax is extensively raised and prepared, would be satisfactorily answered. The price of the machines in use there, we believe, is about \$400. But we do not suppose they are so good as Buchanan's Patent, recommended by Mr. Kimber, and which will cost about \$1,000. It is very simple, but complete; and the process of change is so rapid under the influence of the steam as applied, that the fiber is completely separated from the stalk and all glutinous substance, dried and ready for the market in less than a half a day. One of these machines, it will readily be perceived, could prepare a vast amount of flax for use in a little while. Rights to use this patent have already been sold for Wisconsin and Indiana, but not for Iowa, Illinois, or Missouri. Communications in relation to these machines, addressed to Mr. Kimber, at Philadelphia, will be promptly responded to, and we refer our correspondents to him for detailed information on the whole subject.

In 1851 the heaviest decline occurred in castor beans. An attempt was made at that period to encourage the growth by liberal prices, but large importations of East India oil checked this movement at once, and every subsequent effort has failed to bring our farmers back to the culture. Indiana and Illinois consequently ceased, in a great measure, to pay any attention to this plant. The efforts of farmers have been directed to wheat, corn, hogs, and other products, while this article is comparatively abandoned. We refer to the table of receipts per river, and range of prices given in another place. In 1852, receipts per wagons amounted to 96,612 bushels, 1853 shows only 55,163—decrease 41,449.

COAL. The annexed table exhibits, so far as it was possible to ascertain, the consumption of this article for the year 1853. It embraces all the coal weighed by the scales belonging to the city and private individuals, and so far as they are an indication of the amount consumed, is perfectly correct.

South Market scales.....bus.	609,791	St. George's scales	379,235
Market street scales.....	261,847	North Market scales.....	84,605
Soulad Market scales.....	752,290		
Total.....			2,087,819

Add to this amount the coal consumed by the Messrs. Belcher & Bro., at their sugar refinery, which is weighed by themselves, and estimated at 306,000 bushels, and the amount used by the Iron Rolling Mill Company, which is not included in the above table, and set down at 450,000, making in all 2,837,818 bushels of coal.

COOPERAGE. Receipts show, for the season just closed, 98,141 pieces—34,296

from the Illinois, 16,140 from the Missouri, 3,915 from the Ohio, and 44,790 from the Mississippi. An extra demand has evidently existed for flour barrels, and prices have ranged high accordingly. The appended table exhibits the rates at which whisky and flour barrels ruled during the year:—

FLOUR BARRELS.			
January	37½ a ..	July	40 a 45
February	37½ a 42	August	50 a 65
March	42 a 45	September	46 a 55
April	40 a 45	October	50 a 53
May	40 a 45	November	55 a 65
June	35 a 45	December	56 a 60

WHISKY BARRELS.			
January	\$0 95 a	July	\$1 00 a \$1 20
February	0 80 a	August	1 00 a 1 20
March	1 00 a \$1 20	September	1 10 a 1 25
April	1 10 a 1 20	October	1 20 a
May	1 00 a 1 15	November	1 20 a
June	87½ a 1 00	December	1 30 a

Pork barrels this season opened with \$1 25 to \$1 35, bacon casks \$1 50, and lard kegs 50 to 55c.

STATEMENT OF THE FOREIGN VALUE OF GOODS, WARES AND MERCHANDISE IMPORTED INTO ST. LOUIS, AND THE DUTIES COLLECTED IN THE YEAR ENDING 31st DECEMBER, 1853, viz:—

Amounts during	Dutiable Value.	Duties Collected.
First Quarter, ending 31st March, 1853.....	\$156,183 17	\$46,862 79
Second " " 3d June, "	332,869 24	101,783 10
Third " " 30th September, 1853.....	170,330 50	57,493 45
Fourth " " 31st December, "	257,892 50	83,121 10
	<hr/>	<hr/>
	\$917,275 71	\$289,260 44
Foreign value and the duties thereon remaining in public store on 31st December, 1853	\$14,107 70	\$14,107 70
Entered for consumption, constructively warehoused, viz: Various goods, ware, and merchandise.....	42,611 00	13,676 70
Sugar and molasses (part to arrive).....	269,144 00	80,740 20
Railroad iron, "	193,843 00	59,861 50
	<hr/>	<hr/>
	\$619,705 70	\$168,386 10

With reference to the first statement, the importations were as follows, viz:—

From	Dutiable Value.	Duties Collected.
England	\$487,750 88	\$134,965 67
France	47,855 40	38,616 48
Germany and Holland.....	79,500 48	23,670 14
Spain and certain of her dependencies.....	96,248 00	29,053 90
Matanzas and Manilla.....	78,985 00	23,695 50
Pernambuco and Bahia.....	124,606 00	37,581 80
Various other places and ports.....	2,329 95	1,876 95
	<hr/>	<hr/>
	\$917,275 71	\$289,260 44

The general description of said importations, in reference to the various foreign ports, were as follows, viz:—

From England—Hardware, cutlery, railroad iron, earthen, glass, and china ware, tin plates, tin, iron, and copper, including dry and fancy goods in a small ratio.

From France—Brandy, wine, cigars, cordials, sardines, &c., (but chiefly brandy.)

From Germany and Holland—Fancy goods, patent leather, toys, and other articles in great variety.

From Manilla and Matanzas, Bahia and Pernambuco—Principally sugar and molasses.

From Spain and dependencies the same.

From various other places and ports, comprises almost every article of trade.

Hospital moneys collected were as follows, viz:—

First Quarter of 1853.....	\$529 28	Third Quarter of 1853.....	\$715 63
Second "	769 37	Fourth "	776 25
Total.....		\$2,787 53	

Amount expended for the relief of sick and disabled seamen and boatmen, \$4,000 00

Amount collected from passenger steamers and for licenses to pilots and engineers, under Act of Congress approved 30th August, 1852..... 2,176 50

Tonnage of steam vessels belonging to this district, and remaining 31st December, 1853 tons 36,714 23-95

It is worthy of remark to state, in reference to the seemingly small increase during the year just closed, that there had been an accumulated tonnage reported heretofore, which were not abated—for the lack of official information as to their loss and the manner thereof—which was deducted at the close of the year, and amounted to upwards of 10,000 tons.

The duties collected in the years 1849 to 1853 inclusive, were as follows, viz:

1849....	\$73,970 87-100	1851....	\$239,318 68-100	1853....	\$289,260 41-100
1850....	175,001 16-100	1852....	290,168 85-100		

N. B. The falling off of duties collected during the year 1853, compared with 1852, is consequent upon the detention of sugar, molasses, and railroad iron not arriving at this port under warehouse and transportation entries—attributable to the recent sickness, &c., at the original port of entry, and the continued low stage of water. Otherwise the aggregate of duties would have been nearly \$400,000.*

WOOD. The following is a table showing the amount of wood landed and measured at the wharf, for the year 1853:—

	Cords.	Fees.		Cords.	Fees.
January.....	2,968	\$177 57	July.....	4,878½	\$240 65
February.....	1,584	59 04	August.....	3,122	165 62½
March.....	3,519	184 95	September.....	2,437	191 24
April.....	4,214	215 41	October.....	6,620½	350 25
May.....	4,112	213 47	November.....	4,703	228 44
June.....	2,331	103 45	December.....	3,791½	182 40
Total				44,280½	\$2,362 89½

The fees charged in the above table are paid into the city treasury, as the officer receives a regular salary.

This table embraces the wood actually landed and measured by the officer appointed by the city, and within the city limits. There is a considerable quantity of which we have no data, landed north of the city, and within the jurisdiction of Bremen.

LUMBER. We have from Mr. John H. Ferguson, late an Inspector and Measurer of Lumber, the following report of the lumber received in St. Louis during the year. It has been personally obtained from the merchants and manufacturers, engaged in the business, and may be relied upon:—

* For a statement of imports into St. Louis by the river, see "Commercial Statistics" in the present number of the *Merchants' Magazine*.

LUMBER RECEIVED IN 1858, FROM ALL QUARTERS, BY THE MERCHANTS.

Lumber, sawed	feet	36,412,451
Shingles		30,462,700
Laths		6,947,000
Cedar posts		22,748

During the year, there have been purchased by the city mills, the following :

Logs	feet	29,636,808
Lumber manufactured therefrom		23,095,545
Laths from same	No.	7,975,500
Plank road stuff received by the county for roads by way of rafts and the river is	feet	1,278,336

The above shows, in the receipt and consumption of sawed lumber, 60,786,332 feet. This at least is some evidence of the advance of building, &c., &c., in the city of St. Louis.

JOURNAL OF MERCANTILE LAW.

ALLEGED BREACH OF CONTRACT FOR CORN.

We copy from the *Belfast (Irish) Mercantile Journal*, the following decision in one of the British courts:—*

McCurtin et al., vs. Jonides et al.—The plaintiffs in this action were Messrs. McCurtin & Riley, corn merchants, of Liverpool, and the defendants were Messrs. Jonides & Co., Greek merchants, London. The declaration stated that the defendants bought of the plaintiffs a cargo of Ibrailla Indian corn, to be paid for on handing in the shipping documents; that the plaintiffs were ready to hand in those documents, but the defendants refused to receive the cargo and pay the price. The defendants pleaded to the first count that they made no such contract, and to the remaining part of the declaration they pleaded that they were never indebted.

They then said that the plaintiffs did not hand over the documents, or any of them, relating to the goods, and they were not ready or willing to hand them over. They then pleaded a general plea of fraud and covin, also another plea of fraud, the particular fraud alleged being that the plaintiffs concealed from them information concerning the vessel; 6thly, they pleaded that it was mutually agreed the contract should be rescinded; 7thly, that the plaintiffs sold the cargo to other parties, and thereby broke the contract; 8thly, that, at the time of making the contract, the plaintiffs warranted the said cargo of Indian corn to be of fair average quality, whereas it was not so. There were then two pleas in which the defendants alleged that the contract was in writing, signed by Mr. Mongredien, as the agent of the defendants, and was for the sale of goods of the value of £10, which was not accepted, nor anything given in earnest or part payment, and the plaintiffs afterwards altered such contract in a material particular, by striking out certain words, imputing that the goods were of fair average quality.

The action was brought to recover £894, the loss which the plaintiffs had sustained by the defendants refusing to perform the contract into which they had entered with the plaintiffs.

The sale note sent to plaintiffs, by Mr. Mongredien, contained the words "of fair average quality," which the plaintiff objecting to, scored his pen across the words, and wrote so to the broker, who replied that it was customary for those words to be inserted in all sales of the kind. It was contended by defendants

* The journal does not give the name of the court or place of its sitting.

that, in doing so, the contract was voided, but plaintiffs pleaded that a contract, when it was made through the medium of a broker, was not, by the bought and sold notes, although the bought and sold notes might be in evidence of it; but when the broker, at the time he made the contract, entered that contract in his own book, the book was the contract and not the notes. The shipping documents having been forwarded by the plaintiffs, through their bankers, the day after, that they might receive their money, was contended by them to be sufficient proof that they did not consider the contract void.

It was further contended by defendants, that the plaintiffs knew the vessel (the *Aghios Nicolaos*) had touched at several places, and amongst others, at Malta, before they effected the sale, and that this not having been stated, it was a fraudulent sale, to which knowledge the plaintiffs pleaded entire ignorance, and offered to leave the matter to arbitration if defendants wished, but they declined, and abandoned the contract altogether, as the vessel had put into Athens, Naulpa, and Malta. Evidence was brought forward to prove that the cargo was of fair average quality, and that it was sold under protest only after it had been abandoned by the purchaser. It was decided that there should be a verdict for defendants on first and second pleas, on the ground that the bought and sold notes, if produced, would both of them have constituted the contract: but when produced, the plaintiff having altered the writing, he had vitiated the contract. In coming to this decision, his lordship recited the case of "*Mollet*," and also "*Powell vs. Divett*." On all the other pleas there was a verdict for the plaintiffs.

CONTRACT FOR THE SALE OF GOODS.

An action was brought to recover the price of a cargo of China stone sold by the plaintiff to the defendant. A, the defendant, had ordered the goods of B, directing B to insure the cargo, and to send it by ship to C, a carrier, by whom it was to be finally delivered to A. The stone was shipped, and a bill of lading, signed by the captain, transmitted to C, to whom the stone was made deliverable. The ship sailed with the cargo on board, and in five days afterwards was lost at sea. Either on the day when the ship was lost, or on the day following, A, the purchaser, received a copy of the bill of lading, and notice that it had been transmitted to C. He was also informed that the vender would not insure; but it was not until twelve days afterwards that A—who, in the mean time, not withdrawing the notice of non-insurance, had done nothing to repudiate the contract—received a communication informing him of the loss of the cargo. Judgment was for the defendant, the court holding that there was no evidence of an acceptance and receipt of the goods within the statute, and that consequently the defendant would not be bound by the purchase.—*Meredith vs. Meigh*, 21 L. T. Rep. 137.

BILLS OF EXCHANGE.

In a case tried before the Court of Queen's Bench, (*Pollard vs. Ogden*.) the payee and acceptor of a bill were both customers at the same bank, the bill being payable there. The payee discounted the bill with the bank, which afterwards discounted it with another bank. When the bill was presented at the bank for payment by the holder, the acceptor's account was overdrawn, and he stopped payment the same day after banking hours. The bank paid the bill by a check for a gross sum, including the bill in question, as well as others paid by the holder on the same day. The jury found that the bank paid the bill to the holder as indorsers, and not for the acceptors. It was held by the court that the bank was entitled to set off the amount so paid against money due to the plaintiffs on their banking account.—21 L. T. Rep. 152.

 COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE AND REVIEW.

CONDITION OF THE MONEY MARKET THROUGHOUT THE UNION—CONDITION OF THE BANKS IN CONNECTION WITH POPULAR PREJUDICES—WEEKLY AVERAGE OF THE NEW YORK BANKS—EFFECT OF A EUROPEAN WAR UPON OUR COMMERCIAL INTERESTS—TRADE OF RUSSIA WITH THE UNITED STATES AND WITH GREAT BRITAIN—RECEIPTS OF GOLD FROM CALIFORNIA—DEPOSITS AND COINAGE AT THE PHILADELPHIA AND NEW ORLEANS MINTS—IMPORTS OF FOREIGN GOODS AT NEW YORK FOR FEBRUARY, AND FROM JANUARY FIRST—COMPARATIVE STATEMENT OF THE IMPORTS OF DRY GOODS FOR FEBRUARY, AND FROM JANUARY FIRST—CASH REVENUE FOR JANUARY AND FEBRUARY—CONTINUED INCREASE IN THE EXPORT TRADE, WITH STATISTICS OF THE CLEARANCES AT NEW YORK FOR FEBRUARY AND FROM JANUARY FIRST—COMPARATIVE SHIPMENTS OF CERTAIN ARTICLES OF DOMESTIC PRODUCE FROM NEW YORK—PRODUCTION AND STOCKS OF BREADSTUFFS—PRICES OF STOCKS, ETC., ETC.

THERE was a partial relaxation of the stringency in most of the money markets throughout the country early in the month, but toward the close there was an active demand for capital, and the pressure was generally increased. At Boston, New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Cincinnati, St. Louis, New Orleans, Mobile, and Charleston, there has been more or less complaint of the scarcity of money, although as a general thing, in the first three cities named, loans were readily obtained at 10 a 12 per cent per annum. At some points in the interior, borrowers have paid 2 a 3 per cent per month for the use of capital, even where the security offered was undoubted. Credit, however, has remained unshaken, the borrowers not being, as a general thing, of the weaker class of dealers. The moment that a large amount of produce, now accumulated at the various depots throughout the country, can be moved to the seaboard, much capital that is now locked up will be set free, and all classes will be relieved. We find in a large number of our exchanges, the old stereotyped complaint of a want of accommodation on the part of the banks. Traders and others who never borrow of these institutions when money is plenty and street rates are less than legal interest, run to them during a pressure, and are quite astonished at a refusal of their offering. They are then ready to exclaim with the sagacious African that "The moon only shines *light* nights when it is n't needed." What are banks worth if they cannot lend money when it is scarce and wanted? That banks are frequently mismanaged, the history of many which were, and are not, too plainly tells; but the mismanagement is generally in the opposite course from that which excites the most complaint. The temptation is always toward too great expansion, and thus a contraction is in most cases an effort at self-preservation. This effort, however, is almost always too spasmodic, and not unfrequently ill-timed. The banks have no moral right, after a general course of expansion, lasting for months, to contract suddenly, as if their own ease, or comfort, or even safety, were to be alone considered. If their expansion have led the community into recklessness, or rash speculations, they ought to give their customers a chance to extricate themselves, and not shut the door upon the distress for which they are in part responsible. There is a deep-seated feeling of distrust, in some cases reaching even to hostility, among the masses toward our moneyed institutions, which various influences have unhappily engendered or fostered. Those writers on political economy who are continually representing CAPITAL as

the antagonist of LABOR, have contributed to this feeling. The banks themselves, through their officers, are more to blame than they are willing to acknowledge. There is something in poor human nature which always tempts the man clothed with a little brief authority, to the assumption of a commanding tone, even if it do not reach to the exercise of arbitrary power. In the nature of its business, the bank must be an inexorable creditor, demanding its dues without patience for default or procrastination. The absence of that habit of indulgence or leniency upon which the poorer classes are accustomed to rely in their dealings with their fellowmen of other professions, is oftener felt than is generally supposed. But the great difficulty, probably, is the fact that capital does offer greater facilities to the rich than to the poor, simply because the former can give greater warrant for the return of the loan. We need more discrimination in this respect than has yet been shown by the managers of our banking institutions. The private bankers become more acquainted with their customers, and base their estimate of the security offered somewhat upon the personal character of the applicant; but the corporate and associate bankers nearly all need a lesson in this respect. If a firm have capital, it has credit at the bank, with far too little regard to the habits and character of its members; while sterling integrity and business capacity, without capital, are not sufficiently estimated. In many of the New England States there are exceptions to this rule, and in all of them the evil of which we speak is less noticeable than in other parts of the Union; as a consequence, there is a better understanding there between capital and labor, and the banks can extend their circulation to a degree which would be unsafe in most other communities, unless upon a much larger specie basis.

At New York the stock of specie has decreased, owing to the accumulations at the Sub-Treasury, and the shipments of coin to the interior, and especially to the South, for the purchase of produce and exchange. The following will show the progress of these institutions since the weekly statements were commenced :

WEEKLY AVERAGES OF NEW YORK CITY BANKS.

Week ending.	Average amount of Loans and Discounts.	Average amount of Specie.	Average amount of Circulation.	Average amount of Deposits.
August 6, 1853.....	\$97,899,499	\$9,746,441	\$9,513,058	\$60,579,797
August 13.....	94,633,282	10,653,518	9,451,943	57,457,504
August 20.....	94,074,717	11,082,274	9,389,727	57,307,223
August 27.....	92,387,618	11,319,040	9,427,191	57,431,891
September 3.....	91,741,388	11,268,049	9,554,294	57,502,970
September 10.....	91,108,347	11,380,693	9,597,386	57,545,164
September 17.....	90,190,589	11,860,235	9,566,723	57,612,301
September 24.....	90,092,765	11,340,925	9,477,541	58,312,334
October 1.....	90,149,540	11,231,912	9,521,665	57,968,661
October 8.....	89,128,998	10,266,602	9,673,458	57,985,760
October 15.....	87,887,273	11,330,172	9,464,714	59,068,674
October 22.....	85,867,931	10,303,254	9,388,543	56,748,729
October 29.....	88,400,321	10,866,672	9,300,350	53,335,463
November 5.....	83,092,630	11,771,880	9,492,158	55,500,977
November 12.....	82,882,409	12,823,575	9,287,629	56,201,007
November 19.....	83,717,622	13,691,324	9,161,443	57,446,424
November 26.....	84,802,530	13,343,196	9,032,769	58,673,076
December 3.....	85,824,756	12,830,772	9,153,586	53,435,207
December 10.....	86,708,028	12,493,760	9,075,704	57,838,076
December 17.....	87,865,073	12,166,020	8,939,830	58,312,478
December 24.....	88,766,402	12,074,499	8,872,764	58,154,303
December 31.....	90,162,106	11,058,478	8,927,013	58,963,976

Week ending.	Average amount of Loans and discounts.	Average amount of Specie.	Average amount of Circulation.	Average amount of Deposits.
January 7, 1854.....	90,188,887	11,506,124	9,075,926	60,885,862
January 14.....	90,010,012	11,894,453	8,668,344	58,396,956
January 21.....	90,068,738	11,455,156	8,605,235	59,071,252
January 28.....	89,759,465	11,117,958	8,642,677	58,239,577
February 4.....	90,549,577	11,634,653	8,996,657	61,208,466
February 11.....	91,434,022	11,872,126	8,994,083	61,024,817
February 18.....	92,698,085	11,742,384	8,954,464	61,826,669
February 25.....	93,529,716	11,212,693	8,929,314	61,298,645
March 4.....	94,558,421	10,560,400	9,209,830	61,975,675
March 11.....	94,279,994	9,832,483	9,137,555	60,226,583
March 18.....	93,418,929	10,018,456	9,255,781	61,098,605

There is much speculation in regard to the effect which a war between Russia and the western European powers would have upon our commercial interests; but all such statistics, however elaborate, are after all totally unreliable, the data being quite insufficient. If Great Britain and France blockade the Russian ports, our position as neutrals will avail us but little in that direction. If these ports are left open, we may share with the Germans the carrying trade of the Baltic, which would be denied to the British flag. The direct trade between this country and Russia is about equally balanced between imports and exports, and is something less than \$2,000,000 per annum on either side. Great Britain, however, while she exports less than \$9,000,000 to Russia, imports very largely from her of many articles highly important to her Commerce, but especially so to her domestic manufactures. For this vast difference between her imports and exports Great Britain pays in specie, and as capital is more abundant with her than with Russia, British merchants are in the habit of making yearly advances during the Autumn for goods to be delivered between May and October. Thus it is computed by the London *Economist*, that the advances made to Russian factors at the time the Russian troops crossed the Pruth amounted to \$35,000,000, and that nearly the whole of this sum would have been sacrificed if war had then been declared. Ample time has since been allowed for the goods to be delivered and settlements to be made, and of course no new advances of any importance have been undertaken. This may explain the seeming supineness of England in the early conduct of the negotiations. That our readers may form a clearer idea of the value of the articles brought from Russia to Great Britain, we annex a carefully prepared summary of the most important items, comparing the same with the total import trade of the kingdom:—

IMPORTED INTO GREAT BRITAIN.					
	From all ports.	Russia.	All ports.	Russia.	Per cent from Russia about
	1852.	1852.	1853.	1853.	
Wheat and flour.....qrs.	4,164,603	733,571	6,276,857	1,070,901	17
Oats.....	989,287	305,738	1,035,072	379,059	32
Other grain.....	2,592,181	262,348	2,918,545	263,653	9
Tallow.....cwts.	1,049,703	609,197	1,178,370	847,267	72
Linseed and flaxseed...qrs.	709,402	518,667	1,035,335	765,015	75
Bristles.....lbs.	2,004,676	1,459,303	2,700,000	2,447,789	75
Flax.....cwts.	1,402,583	948,523	1,883,374	1,287,988	66
Hemp.....	1,081,287	543,965	1,262,813	836,373	66
Wool.....lbs.	91,692,864	6,353,772	117,185,172	9,064,443	8
Iron.....tons.	38,376	1,792	45,777	5,079	11
Copper.....	103,686	1,268	104,200	1,630	..
Timber.....loads.	2,130,180	218,078	2,654,400	260,013	..

In case of a strict blockade of the Russian ports, no inconsiderable portion of this produce would find its way to market by the two overland routes via Warsaw and Cracow. With both these points railways connect, so as to bring the receipts at a moderate expense, considering the distance of inland transportation, to the neutral ports in the north of Europe. This would effectually cut off our share in this trade, or at least greatly diminish it.

In other parts of the world, however, our Commerce would have a decided advantage over that of the belligerent powers, and would no doubt be considerably enhanced by a state of actual hostilities between the principal kingdoms of Europe.

The receipts of gold from California, it is now universally admitted, show a considerable decline from last year. The rainy season at the diggings has been unusually severe, the number of miners actually employed has probably been less, and the absorption at home been greater. We have doubtless reached the hight of the production, although there may be no further decline in the receipts for several years. The deposits at the Philadelphia Mint, where most of the gold is now received, since our last have been as follows:—

	Gold.		Silver.	Total.
	From California.	Other sources.		
Philadelphia Mint.....	\$2,481,000	\$53,000	\$1,766,000	\$3,680,000
New Orleans Mint.....	96,152	13,592	188,068	291,798
Total deposits.....	\$2,557,152	\$66,592	\$1,849,058	\$3,971,798

GOLD COINAGE.

	New Orleans.		Philadelphia.	
	Pieces.	Value.	Pieces.	Value.
Double Eagles.....	154,297	\$3,085,290
Half eagles.....	11,000	\$55,000
Quarter eagles.....	68,000	170,000
Total gold coinage.....	79,000	\$225,000	154,297	\$3,085,290

SILVER COINAGE.

Half dollars.....	496,000	\$248,000	274,000	\$137,000
Quarter dollars.....	1,240,000	310,000
Dimes.....	270,000	27,000	130,000	13,000
Total silver coinage.....	766,000	\$275,000	1,644,000	\$460,000

COPPER COINAGE.

Cents.....	122,217	\$1,222
Total coinage.....	845,000	\$500,000	1,920,514	\$3,546,512

This shows a total falling off in the deposits since January 1st, of about \$2,000,000 as compared with 1853, and the receipts for March, as far as known, exhibit a still greater comparative decline.

The imports of foreign goods, which showed so large an increase in January, exhibit a marked decline in our comparison for February, so that the total receipts since January 1st are less than for the corresponding period of last year. This is the more remarkable, as it is the first monthly statement for more than a year and a half which has not exhibited an increase in the imports over the corres-

ponding period of the previous year. At New York, the *increase* in January was \$6,166,829; the *decrease* in February at the same port is \$6,386,340 as compared with February, 1853, \$958,823 as compared with February, 1851, and only \$1,846,003 greater than the moderate total for the corresponding month of 1852. We annex a comparative statement of the items for four years:—

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN MERCHANDISE AT NEW YORK FOR THE MONTH OF FEBRUARY.

	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
Entered for consumption.....	\$9,442,007	\$7,024,952	\$14,578,018	\$9,426,206
Entered for warehousing.....	1,240,329	1,003,388	1,012,564	923,480
Free goods.....	1,208,036	1,110,949	1,767,908	466,506
Specie and bullion.....	164,031	110,293	123,480	279,388
Total entered at the port.....	\$12,054,403	\$9,249,577	\$17,481,920	\$11,095,580
Withdrawn from warehouse.....	899,438	1,788,997	830,552	1,954,010

This rapid falling off in the February imports was not generally anticipated, and has not been compensated for by a corresponding increase in March, as many predicted. The total receipts of foreign goods at New York since January 1st are \$219,491 less than for the same period of last year; \$10,441,725 greater than for the same period of 1852; and \$3,180,526 greater than for the same period of 1851. This will fully appear from the following comparison:—

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN MERCHANDISE AT NEW YORK FOR THE MONTHS OF JANUARY AND FEBRUARY.

	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
Entered for consumption.....	\$22,150,525	\$15,609,263	\$26,141,423	\$25,077,621
Entered for warehousing.....	2,852,176	2,284,977	1,654,843	3,195,456
Free goods.....	2,145,086	2,152,406	2,970,146	1,861,569
Specie and bullion.....	374,486	215,029	156,478	568,753
Total entered at the port.....	\$27,522,873	\$20,261,674	\$30,922,890	\$30,703,399
Withdrawn from warehouse.	1,923,684	3,373,649	2,366,887	4,843,526

The above shows a very large increase since January 1st in the warehousing business over either of the previous years, and a considerable decline in the free goods, which is chiefly owing to the small imports of tea. The falling off in the imports noticed above has been less noticeable in dry goods than in general merchandise. The total imports of dry goods at New York for the month of February was \$999,713 less than for February, 1853; \$2,931,684 greater than for February, 1852; and \$1,052,888 greater than for the same month of 1851. There has been a much greater comparative decline in the receipts of woollens and cottons, but the imports of silks show a large increase:—

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN DRY GOODS AT NEW YORK FOR THE MONTH OF FEBRUARY.

ENTERED FOR CONSUMPTION.

	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
Manufactures of wool.....	\$1,273,619	\$990,291	\$2,367,171	\$1,491,198
Manufactures of cotton.....	1,452,382	938,177	1,977,027	1,890,078
Manufactures of silk.....	2,423,859	1,980,154	2,871,017	3,278,285
Manufactures of flax.....	887,894	504,550	909,457	610,903
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	419,240	449,486	597,820	656,785
Total.....	\$6,456,994	\$4,762,658	\$8,721,992	\$7,427,249

WITHDRAWN FROM WAREHOUSE.

	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
Manufactures of wool.....	\$90,176	\$201,935	\$107,751	\$281,252
Manufactures of cotton.....	202,950	311,647	145,055	461,957
Manufactures of silk.....	140,724	384,198	96,755	331,118
Manufactures of flax.....	60,065	188,788	37,386	190,523
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	42,685	63,071	29,016	54,781
Total withdrawn.....	\$545,600	\$1,149,639	\$415,963	\$1,319,631
Add entered for consumption....	6,456,994	4,762,658	8,721,992	7,427,249
Total thrown upon the market..	\$7,002,594	\$5,912,297	\$9,137,955	\$8,746,880

ENTERED FOR WAREHOUSING.

	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
Manufactures of wool.....	\$72,846	\$103,492	\$89,918	\$122,322
Manufactures of cotton.....	173,326	52,631	126,606	160,182
Manufactures of silk.....	196,362	150,177	86,220	265,427
Manufactures of flax.....	32,402	8,662	5,528	50,254
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	70,171	45,685	24,375	29,555
Total.....	\$545,107	\$360,647	\$332,710	\$627,740
Add entered for consumption.....	6,456,994	4,762,658	8,721,992	7,427,249
Total entered at the port.....	\$7,002,101	\$5,123,305	\$9,054,702	\$8,054,989

The imports of dry goods since January 1st, are \$667,939 greater than for the corresponding two months of last year; \$5,036,778 greater than for the same period of 1852; and \$1,912,794 greater than for the same period of 1851.

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN DRY GOODS AT NEW YORK FOR TWO MONTHS, FROM JANUARY 1ST.

ENTERED FOR CONSUMPTION.

	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
Manufactures of wool.....	\$2,878,717	\$2,296,613	\$3,981,543	\$3,162,449
Manufactures of cotton.....	3,296,323	2,246,629	3,720,195	4,016,894
Manufactures of silk.....	6,455,861	4,950,787	6,254,182	6,251,266
Manufactures of flax.....	1,579,532	1,073,711	1,779,917	1,588,747
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	959,444	800,729	1,075,781	1,288,657
Total.....	\$15,164,877	\$11,368,469	\$16,811,618	\$16,303,013

WITHDRAWN FROM WAREHOUSE.

	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
Manufactures of wool.....	\$196,003	\$416,037	\$225,462	\$562,655
Manufactures of cotton.....	457,174	592,248	310,442	905,013
Manufactures of silk.....	247,094	676,084	438,337	837,601
Manufactures of flax.....	179,000	310,423	67,351	312,136
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	96,635	85,391	104,112	89,457
Total.....	\$1,175,906	\$2,080,183	\$1,140,704	\$2,706,865
Add entered for consumption....	15,164,877	11,368,469	16,811,618	16,303,013
Total thrown on the market..	\$16,340,783	\$13,448,652	\$17,952,322	\$19,009,878

ENTERED FOR WAREHOUSING.

	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
Manufactures of wool	\$212,502	\$287,608	\$182,982	\$361,832
Manufactures of cotton	395,738	261,487	230,097	731,652
Manufactures of silk	402,367	987,534	319,979	648,120
Manufactures of flax	86,757	75,501	17,044	204,467
Miscellaneous dry goods	112,424	70,087	77,850	38,375
Total	\$1,209,788	\$1,682,212	\$807,902	\$1,984,446
Add entered for consumption....	15,164,877	11,368,469	16,811,618	16,303,018
Total entered at the port ...	\$16,374,665	\$18,050,681	\$17,619,520	\$18,287,459

The cash revenue at New York has been larger than usual in proportion to the imports, on account, in part, of the unusual decline in free goods, and also because there has been an increase in many articles of luxury paying a high rate of duty. The following will show the comparative totals:—

CASH DUTIES RECEIVED AT NEW YORK.

	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
January.....	\$3,511,610 04	\$2,600,562 64	\$3,311,137 37	\$4,379,285 32
February	2,658,635 87	2,286,955 47	3,378,395 47	2,867,294 50
	\$6,170,445 91	\$4,887,518 11	\$7,189,532 84	\$7,246,579 82

The most remarkable feature in our foreign trade has been the large increase in the exports to foreign ports, made up to a considerable extent of breadstuffs, and provisions. The total exports to foreign countries from New York for February, exclusive of specie, are \$2,388,770 greater for the same month of last year; \$2,188,950 greater than for February, 1852; and \$3,015,314 greater than for the corresponding period of 1851. This increase, it will be seen, is mostly in articles of domestic produce.

EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS FOR THE MONTH OF FEBRUARY.

	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
Domestic produce	\$2,585,786	\$3,352,943	\$3,325,005	\$5,400,924
Foreign merchandise (free).....	60,930	93,932	63,197	156,484
Foreign merchandise (dutiable)...	295,567	322,272	171,125	400,739
Specie	1,007,689	3,551,543	1,121,020	579,724
Total exports	\$3,949,972	\$7,320,690	\$4,680,347	\$6,537,831
Total, exclusive of specie	2,942,283	3,769,147	3,569,327	5,958,097

The exports of specie in February show a decline as compared with either of the preceding years, while the receipts have increased. The total exports of merchandise since January 1st, are \$4,944,637 greater than for the same period of 1853; \$5,229,512 greater than for the same period in 1852; and \$5,206,886 greater than the corresponding period of 1851. This shows an average increase of about 75 per cent, which is unparalleled, considering the length of time it has continued.

EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS FOR THE MONTHS OF JANUARY AND FEBRUARY.

	1861.	1859.	1858.	1854.
Domestic produce	\$5,738,530	\$5,772,239	\$6,315,629	\$10,705,127
Foreign merchandise (free).....	112,514	120,625	105,771	227,968
Foreign merchandise (dutiable)...	717,962	680,516	436,855	869,507
Specie	2,278,970	6,420,501	1,868,699	2,425,406
Total exports	\$8,842,976	\$12,993,881	\$8,726,954	\$14,222,298
Total, exclusive of specie	6,596,006	6,573,380	6,858,255	11,802,892

EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS OF CERTAIN LEADING ARTICLES OF DOMESTIC PRODUCE, FROM JANUARY 1ST TO MARCH 18TH:—

	1859.	1854.		1859.	1854.
Ashes—pots.....bbls	982	1,041	Naval stores.....bbls	72,677	121,081
pearls	128	241	Oils—whale.....galls	7,263	20,424
Beeswax.....lbs	72,994	55,015	sperm	139,663	99,655
<i>Breadstuffs—</i>			lard	1,576	5161
Wheat flour....bbls	342,992	359,993	linseed	1,329	884
Rye flour.....	84	3,056	<i>Provisions—</i>		
Corn meal.....	11,743	20,418	Pork.....bbls	11,942	15,247
Wheat.....bush	509,260	769,747	Beef.....	18,804	17,733
Rye.....		291,384	Cut meats.....lbs	1,031,693	2,626,347
Oats	18,181	3,938	Butter.....	220,132	443,68
Barley.....			Cheese.....	1,318,577	548,85
Corn	307,966	1,063,803	Lard.....	1,787,110	2,526,167
Candles—mold...boxes	14,048	13,968	Rice.....trcs	2,894	8,755
sperm.....	1,352	1,360	Tallow	144,127	319,978
Coal.....tons	3,607	3,937	Tobacco, crude....pkgs	3,499	8,689
Ootton.....bales	33,972	68,495	Do., manufactured..lbs	928,553	413,039
Hay.....	989	1,488	Whalebone.....	366,004	222,018
Hops.....	43	108			

The exports of cereals from New York have been limited by the limited stock at that port; but from Southern ports the supplies which have gone forward, have largely increased. How long this ratio of increase will continue, must depend in a great measure upon the prospects of the next crop in France and England, and the course of political events. The supplies in the interior of our country are ample, and we could spare much more, as soon as navigation opens and we can get it to the seaboard. The high prices which have been obtained for breadstuffs have not only enriched the producer, but they have also stimulated the shipments, so that the stock now brought into the avenues of transportation, and ready to move when inland navigation is opened, bears a larger proportion to the whole stock remaining on hand than during either of the last few years. This activity has benefited the works of internal communication and aided in earning large dividends for most of the railroad companies.

There has been more activity in stocks and bonds since our last, but the early upward tendency has been checked, and the general feeling has been adverse to enlarged speculations. The New York and Erie Railroad Company have negotiated the balance of their Third Mortgage Bonds, amounting to \$2,700,000, at 90 per cent. The bonds were divided between American, English, and continental capitalists.

THE NEW YORK COTTON MARKET

FOR THE MONTH ENDING MARCH 13.

PREPARED FOR THE MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE BY UELHORN & FREDERICKSON, BROKERS,
148 PEARL STREET, NEW YORK.

Our last monthly report of the market closed heavy, with the tendency of prices in favor of buyers. This position of affairs continued throughout the following week, and although the sales were augmented, much irregularity in prices existed, and the decline at the close of the week was about $\frac{1}{4}$ c. per lb. on nearly all grades. The finer qualities, from their scarcity, were less affected. It is also worthy of note, that there has been less poor cotton received thus far than was expected. Of red and stained cottons, we think the proportion has been large; it is, nevertheless, generally of an excellent staple, well handled, and free from impurities. It has been freely purchased by shippers, and our own print-cloth manufacturers. The market closed quiet at the annexed quotations, with total sales of 8,211 bales:—

Export	bales. 4,782	Speculation	bales. 567
Home use	2,511	In transitu	851

Total sales during the week..... 8,211

PRICES ADOPTED FEBRUARY 20TH FOR THE FOLLOWING QUALITIES:—

	Upland.	Florida.	Mobile.	N. O. & Texas.
Ordinary	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	8
Middling	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	10
Middling fair	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	11 $\frac{1}{2}$
Fair	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	12 $\frac{1}{2}$

The second week of the month under review opened with a good demand for export and home consumption. Holders declined offering their stocks unless at an advance, which was obtained to the extent of $\frac{1}{4}$ c. a $\frac{1}{2}$ c. per pound on even running lists, and the demand was not freely supplied at even this improvement. Louisiana growths were more in demand at better rates—the quantity of New Orleans cotton on the market being extremely light. The decrease of over 600,000 bales in receipts, as compared with last year, being still maintained, and the best half of the cotton year passed. The probability of a three-million crop is rapidly diminishing. Our market for the week closed with an upward tendency, with sales and quotations below:—

Export	bales. 9,845	Speculation	bales. 1,426
Home use	4,017	In transitu	1,048

Total sales during the week..... 16,336

PRICES ADOPTED FEBRUARY 27TH FOR THE FOLLOWING QUALITIES:—

	Upland.	Florida.	Mobile.	N. O. & Texas.
Ordinary	8	8	8	8 $\frac{1}{2}$
Middling	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	10 $\frac{1}{2}$
Middling fair	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	11 $\frac{1}{2}$
Fair	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	12 $\frac{1}{2}$

For the week ending March 6th, the sales reported were the largest since the formation of the Cotton Brokers' Association. Throughout the entire week the demand was active, and shippers took to the extent of 11,647 bales. Holders obtained an advance on all descriptions of fully $\frac{1}{4}$ c. per pound. Freight for Liverpool rose to the same extent, and the limited room offering retarded operations. The quantity of cotton on sale at the close was small, and our total unsold stock did not exceed 20,000 bales. Sellers were firm in their demands, and our market closes buoyantly with the sales and quotations annexed:—

Export	bales. 11,647	Speculation	bales. 1,906
Home use	3,900	In transitu	1,753

Total sales during the week..... 19,306

PRICES ADOPTED MARCH 6TH FOR THE FOLLOWING VARIETIES:—

	Upland.	Florida.	Mobile.	N. O. & Texas.
Ordinary	8½	8½	8½	8½
Middling	10½	10½	10½	10½
Middling fair	11	11	11½	11½
Fair	11½	11½	11½	12½

The upward tendency in prices noticed above continued to the middle of the last week of the month, when a slight reaction took place, and a decline of ¼c. per pound was submitted to, caused by the unfavorable turn the *Eastern affair* had assumed, by the warlike position of France and England, and the determination of the western powers to conquer a peace. The firmness of the freight market also tended to retard operations, and the smallness of our stock prevented holders from pressing sales. Some few lots were offered by speculators at irregular prices, and the market for the week closed quiet at the following quotations:—

Export	bales.	3,717	Speculation	bales.	1,532
Home use		3,511	In transitu		2,201

Total sales during the week 10,961

PRICES ADOPTED MARCH 13TH FOR THE FOLLOWING QUALITIES:—

	Upland.	Florida.	Mobile.	N. O. & Texas.
Ordinary	8½	8½	8½	8½
Middling	9½	9½	10	10½
Middling fair	10½	10½	11½	11½
Fair	11½	11½	11½	12½

CROP AND RECEIPTS. Opinions, as regards the extent of the crop, have undergone a material change during the past month. At all the southern ports, 2,800,000 bales is now regarded as the maximum, and not a few are found who think that 2,700,000 bales will cover the total receipts. The decrease in receipts, (now amounting to 640,000 bales,) was expected to have been ere this much diminished. The period for the usual heavy receipts at the ports is rapidly passing, and many doubt whether the present decrease will be lessened during the next two months.

JOURNAL OF BANKING, CURRENCY, AND FINANCE.

BANKS AND BANKING ASSOCIATIONS IN THE STATE OF NEW YORK.

In the *Merchants' Magazine* for March, 1854, (vol. xxx. pp. 345-6,) we published a summary of the report of a committee of the Legislature of New York, appointed under a concurrent resolution of the two Houses passed on the 20th July, 1853, in pursuance of the act of May 25th, 1851. We have since received, from D. B. Sr. JONX, Esq., the able Superintendent of the Banking Department, his report, made to the Assembly Jan. 5, 1854, as required by Chapter 164, Laws of 1851. The report of the committee referred to above embraces many of the statements contained in that of the Superintendent. Omitting the "facts and figures" derived from the report of the committee and published in our last, we now give, in a condensed form, a full summary view of the statements contained in the Superintendent's report, as follows:—

Since the date of the Superintendent's last annual report, 50 banking associations have been organized, and have deposited the securities required by law, and registered notes have been issued to them. Eight individual bankers have also deposited securities, as required by the act of May 6th, 1844, and have received circulating notes.

The charters of 10 banks have expired, all of which have organized under the provisions of chapter 313, Laws of 1849, viz.:—

Bank of America, New York; Bank of Geneva, Geneva; Bank of New York, N. Y.; Bank of Troy, Troy; Butchers' and Drovers' Bank, New York; Catskill Bank, Catskill; Farmers' Bank of Troy, Troy; Mechanics' and Farmers' Bank, Albany; Mohawk Bank, Schenectady; Union Bank, New York.

The following are the names and locations of the banking associations which have organized and commenced business during the year, viz. :—

Atlantic Bank, New York.	Market Bank of Troy, Troy.
Auburn City Bank, Auburn.	*Mechanics' and Farmers' Bank of Albany.
*America, Bank of, New York.	Mechanics' Bank of Williamsburgh.
Buffalo City Bank, Buffalo.	Merchants' Bank of Albany, Albany.
*Butchers' and Drovers' Bank, New York.	*Mohawk Bank of Schenectady.
*Catskill Bank, Catskill.	Mutual Bank, Troy.
Central Bank, Troy.	*New York, Bank of, New York.
Central Bank, Brooklyn.	Niagara River Bank, Tonawanda.
Central Bank, New York City.	Oneida County Bank, Utica.
Chittenango Bank, Chittenango.	Oriental Bank, New York.
Continental Bank, New York.	Port Jervis, Bank of, Port Jervis.
Corn Exchange Bank, New York.	Rensselaer County Bank, Lansingburgh.
Commercial Bank, Glen's Falls.	Rhinebeck, Bank of, Rhinebeck.
Capitol, Bank of the, Albany.	St. Nicholas Bank, New York.
Cooperstown, Bank of, Cooperstown.	Shoe and Leather Bank, New York.
Commonwealth, Bank of the, New York.	Spraker Bank, Canajoharie.
Coxsackie, Bank of, Coxsackie.	State of New York Bank, Kingston.
Elmira Bank, Elmira.	Salem, Bank of, Salem.
*Farmers' Bank of the City of Troy, Troy.	Sing Sing, Bank of, Sing Sing.
Genesee River Bank, Mount Morris.	*Troy, Bank of, Troy.
*Geneva, Bank of, Geneva.	Union Bank of Albany, Albany.
Hamilton Bank, Hamilton.	Union Bank of Kinderhook, Kinderhook.
Huguenot Bank, New Paltz.	*Union Bank in the City of New York.
Island City Bank, New York.	Union Bank of Rochester, Rochester.
Marine Bank, New York.	Union, Bank of the, in the City of N. York.

The amount and character of the securities deposited by the fifty banking associations above named are as follows, viz. :—

Bonds and mortgages...	\$929,556 00	United States stocks...	\$1,716,215 68
New York State stocks...	2,212,534 87		
Canal Rev. certificates...	129,500 00	Total	4,987,806 55
Circulation issued on the above			\$4,550,221 00

The following are the names assumed by the individual bankers who have deposited securities and received circulating notes during the year, and their locations, viz. :—

Commerce of Putnam Co., Bank of, Carmel.	Mercantile Bank of Plattsburgh, Plattsburgh.
Judson Bank, Ogdensburg.	Merchants' Bank of Westfield, Westfield.
Jamestown Bank, Jamestown.	Queen City Bank, Buffalo.
Iron Bank, Plattsburgh.	Randall Bank, Cortland.

The amount and character of the securities deposited by the eight individual bankers above named are as follows, viz. :—

Bonds and mortgages...	\$153,684 00	United States stocks	\$81,150 00
New York State stocks...	130,521 00		
Canal Rev. certificates...	70,000 00	Total	485,355 00
Circulation issued on the above			\$380,460 00

Of the 828 banks, &c., 33 individual bankers and 2 banking associations have given notice of their intention to discontinue the business of banking, and have returned a large proportion of the circulating notes issued to them, and taken up securities.

Three individual bankers have complied with the requisitions of sections 8 and 9 of chapter 319, Laws of 1851, viz.: Village Bank, Randolph; Henry Keep's Bank, Watertown; Warren County Bank, Johnsburgh, and have executed bonds with the sureties as required by chapter 68, Laws of 1851, conditioned for the redemption of all outstanding circulating notes, if presented within six years of the date of the several bonds, and the securities held in trust have been surrendered to the bankers.

* Associations organized under the act passed April 10, 1849, chap. 313.

The following statement shows the condition of all the banks, banking associations, and individual bankers, as stated in the reports received during the year on the several days designated by the Superintendent for making quarterly reports.

	RESOURCES.			
	Dec. 25, '52.	Feb. 26, '53.	June 11, '53.	Sept. 17, '53.
Loans and discounts to directors..	\$6,126,236	\$6,410,204	\$7,100,864	\$7,026,960
Loans and discounts except to directors and brokers	128,750,964	135,176,741	137,489,832	138,740,810
All other liabilities, absolute or contingent of directors	1,624,772	1,306,363	1,519,653	1,492,014
All sums due from brokers	5,735,631	6,100,538	6,616,236	3,900,349
Real estate	4,398,018	4,583,698	5,005,769	5,061,745
Bonds and mortgages	5,282,062	5,396,003	5,822,079	6,193,229
Stocks	18,110,316	18,634,167	19,820,646	20,787,197
Promissory notes, other than for loans and discounts	133,406	108,728	157,503	145,604
Loss and expense account.....	1,004,652	784,744	913,240	864,644
Overdrafts.....	862,878	375,088	412,249	444,035
Specie	11,493,743	10,089,306	13,384,410	12,909,249
Cash items	20,906,241	16,144,816	17,883,543	17,654,305
Bills of solvent banks on hand..	2,877,708	3,670,205	4,368,195	3,207,393
Bills of suspended banks on hand.	3,076	3,281	4,731	1,399
Estimated value of the same	2,503	2,642	4,056	1,174
Due from solvent banks on demand	14,397,722	16,082,256	13,330,777	13,042,264
Due from solvent banks on credit.	148,710	176,076	244,812	222,493
Due fr'm susp'ded b'ks on demand	53,304	51,598	51,165	14,860
Estimated value of the same	17,447	22,072	22,072	14,860
LIABILITIES.				
Capital	\$65,449,703	\$67,623,326	\$73,183,251	\$76,692,075
Profits	11,064,397	8,873,266	10,262,723	10,233,894
Notes in circulation not registered.	522,970	343,246	336,615	335,628
Registered notes in circulation...	32,893,130	29,719,768	29,728,944	32,427,032
Due Treasurer of the State of N. Y.	2,243,180	1,763,450	1,610,197	1,640,650
Due depositors on demand	74,923,943	79,469,326	79,996,528	77,167,076
Due individuals and corporations, other than banks and depositors.	1,990,660	1,846,732	1,674,183	1,414,669
Due banks on demand.....	28,543,115	29,654,255	31,360,027	26,132,499
Due banks on credit	760,238	817,851	529,102	2,130,168
Due to others not included in either of the above heads.....	1,663,593	3,570,108	3,836,415	3,002,614

The amount of capital employed in the business of banking as reported by the banks, banking associations, and individual bankers, on the 17th day of September, 1853, (the date of the last report,) was \$76,692,075; the amount reported on the 4th day of September, 1852, was \$62,207,216, which shows an increase of banking capital in one year, of \$14,484,859.

The total amount of circulating notes issued to banks, banking associations, and individual bankers, and outstanding on the first day of December, was \$43,958,446, viz.:-

To banking associations and individual bankers.....	\$23,743,716
" 60 incorporated banks.....	15,889,356
" 19 banks, the charters of which have expired	4,325,374
	<hr/>
	\$43,958,446

The increase of circulation during the year was \$3,494,684

In no previous year have so great a number of banks been established, or so large an amount been added to the banking capital of the State.

From the year 1843 to 1848, a period of five years, the increase of banking capital was \$735,512, and for the five years next succeeding, from 1848 to 1853, the increase has been \$32,936,986.

By an act of the Legislature, passed April 18, 1848, and the several acts amendatory thereof, every incorporated bank, banking association, and individual banker in the State, are required to make, and transmit to the Superintendent, a quarterly report containing a true statement of the condition of the bank, banking association, or individual banker making such report. From these reports, the following statement has been compiled, showing the increase and decrease of the banking capital in each year, from 1848, (the time when quarterly reports were first required,) up to and including the year 1853. From this statement it will be seen that in the year 1845, there was a decrease of banking capital of \$379,378, and in the year 1846 a decrease of \$903,169; the largest increase in any one year, prior to the last, was in 1851, which was \$7,800,454, or a little over one-half the amount which it has increased the present year.

INCREASE AND DECREASE OF BANKING CAPITAL IN EACH YEAR, FROM 1848 TO 1853,
INCLUSIVE:—

Date of Reports.	Capital.	Increase.	Decrease.
1st Monday in August, 1848.....	\$43,019,577
August 1st..... 1844.....	43,443,005	\$423,428
August 1st..... 1845.....	43,063,627	\$379,378
August 1st..... 1846.....	42,160,453	903,169
August 1st..... 1847.....	48,214,088	1,053,630
June 24th..... 1848.....	48,755,089	541,001
June 30th..... 1849.....	44,929,505	1,174,416
June 29th..... 1850.....	47,779,727	2,850,222
June 21st..... 1851.....	55,580,181	7,800,454
June 26th..... 1852.....	59,705,683	4,125,502
June 11th..... 1853.....	73,183,251	13,477,568
September 17th..... 1853.....	76,692,075	3,508,824

Mr. Sr. JOHN, the Superintendent, in his last annual report, recommended an extension of the basis of banking. That recommendation was predicated upon the supposition that no addition would be made to the State debt, and that the Legislature would pass a law requiring the safety fund banks, whose charters have expired, to return their circulating notes to the department for destruction, thereby creating the necessity of an increased circulation based upon the deposit of securities in the Bank Department. The circulation of the banks whose charters have expired has not decreased any considerable amount. From June, 1849, to January, 1853, the charters of nineteen banks expired, the outstanding circulation of which was \$4,325,874, on the 1st day of December, 1853.

SHOWING THE TIMES WHEN THE CHARTERS OF NINETEEN INCORPORATED BANKS EXPIRED,
AND THE AMOUNT OF THEIR CIRCULATING NOTES OUTSTANDING AND NOT RETURNED TO
THE BANK DEPARTMENT, ON THE 1ST DAY OF DECEMBER, 1853:—

Name of Bank.	Charter expired.	Circulation.
Bank of America.....	1st January, 1853	\$326,235
Bank of Auburn.....	1st " 1850	160,000
Bank of Genesee.....	1st " 1852	150,000
Bank of Geneva.....	1st " 1853	303,000
Bank of Ithaca.....	1st " 1850	55,263
Bank of Monroe.....	1st " 1850	199,160
Bank of Newburgh.....	1st " 1851	141,890
Bank of New York.....	1st " 1853	281,229
Bank of Troy.....	1st " 1853	300,000
Bank of Utica and Branch.....	1st " 1850	256,947
Butchers' and Drovers' Bank.....	1st " 1853	350,000
Catskill Bank.....	1st " 1853	174,190
City Bank, New York.....	1st July, 1852	162,082
Farmers' Bank of Troy.....	1st January, 1853	225,000
Mechanics' and Farmers' Bank.....	1st " 1853	300,000
Merchants' Exchange Bank.....	1st Mond. June, '49	132,867
Mohawk Bank.....	1st January, 1853	153,431
New York State Bank.....	1st " 1851	281,343
Union Bank, New York.....	1st " 1853	422,737

\$4,325,874

On the 1st day of January, 1854, the charters of five other safety fund banks will expire, the circulation of which amounts to \$1,548,278, making the total amount of notes in circulation, issued by safety fund banks whose charters have expired, \$5,873,652. The banks whose charters expired on the 1st of January, 1854, were the Jefferson County, Merchants' and Mechanics' Bank, Onondaga County Bank, Otsego County Bank, and Phenix Bank, New York.

The probable increase of our State debt, to complete the enlargement of the canals, will furnish a large addition to the banking basis during the next three years; and should no other stocks be admitted as a basis for banking by the Legislature, it will insure a ready sale of the stock to be issued to the citizens of New York State for banking purposes on favorable terms to the interests of the State. Notwithstanding the high price of stocks, and the difficulty of procuring them for banking purposes, the increase of banks and banking capital in the State during the year has been fully adequate to the legitimate wants of the community.

The Superintendent, judiciously we think, recommends that the law should be so amended as to permit the banks to deposit United States stock exclusively, instead of requiring an equal share to be in stocks of the State of New York.

DEBT AND FINANCES OF NEWARK.

The present indebtedness of the city of Newark is one hundred and seventy-six thousand six hundred and ninety-two dollars and twenty-three cents, the details of which are as follows:—

State loan (school fund).....	\$30,000	Loan D., due in 1880.....	\$100,000 00
Loan C., due 1870	20,000		
Total funded debt.....			\$150,000 00
Temporary loan			26,692 23
			<hr/> \$176,692 23

The Mayor, in his message, says: "It will be seen that there is still left a margin for an additional loan of fifty thousand dollars to the funded debt, without passing the maximum point of two hundred and fifty thousand dollars, fixed by the last Legislature of the State for our city's indebtedness. This addition will be found necessary during the present year, in order to complete the improvements already in progress, the expenses of which must necessarily be provided for."

SAVINGS BANKS IN GREAT BRITAIN.

The Savings Banks of Great Britain first received the special notice of Parliament in the year 1817. Acts were then passed to encourage the establishment of such institutions in England and Ireland. The money deposited in them must be invested in the Bank of England or Bank of Ireland, in the names of the Commissioners for the reduction of the national debt. The certificates for such investments bear interest at the rate of 3½ per cent, while the depositors receive only £3 Os. 10d. per cent per annum; the difference being appropriated to the expenses of the Savings Banks.

The following statement includes the receipts and payments by the government on account of this institution, from the year 1840 to 1850:—

	Money Received.	Principal Repaid.		Money Received.	Principal Repaid.
1840	£1,082,687	£887,796	1846	£1,236,621	£1,021,450
1841	1,039,152	933,801	1847	475,745	3,571,218
1842	1,148,444	1,062,605	1848	539,802	3,021,960
1843	1,784,509	663,443	1849	916,323	1,197,242
1844	1,793,165	700,819	1850	966,117	1,391,994
1845	1,427,581	1,424,346			

During the pressure for money in 1847-8, the savings deposits were lessened and the funds were invested in other channels. In the years 1845-6, the receipts were £2,664,202, and the payments £2,445,796, while in the years 1847-8, the receipts were £1,015,047, and the payments £6,593,178. The years 1845-6 were marked by extraordinary speculation in railroad undertakings throughout England, and the famine year of 1847 absorbed large amounts for the necessities of life.

The increase in accounts and deposits from 1830 to 1850, throughout England and Wales, and Ireland, is shown in the annexed table:—

Par.	Number of Banks.	Number of Accounts.	Total Deposits.
1830.....	484	476,156	£15,715,111
1850.....	578	1,092,681	27,108,668

The deposits are now estimated at £34,000,000.

In France the plan of Savings Banks is less in favor. In the year 1852 the whole number of such Banks in France was 857, and their deposits 150,000,000 francs, o. about £6,000,000 sterling. For security, these institutions are interwoven with the finances of the State.

It has generally been supposed that the English public debt was held mostly by wealthy individuals. This is not the case to such an extent as is generally believed. The total number of persons receiving dividends on £737,130,668, the public debt in October 1822, and January 1823, was 283,958, nearly one half of whom received only £20 dividend or less. Their amounts were as follows:

£10 or less.....	90,755	£600 or less.....	5,141
20 ".....	41,295	1,000 ".....	3,243
100 ".....	99,582	2,000 ".....	1,782
200 ".....	26,049	4,000 ".....	487
400 ".....	15,459	4,000 and upwards.....	216

In April and October, 1835, the number of dividend takers was 179,338, and in 1852, 297,797. The French debt in 1824, stood at £112,000,000. In the year 1831, the capital debt had increased to £172,000,000, and the number of inscriptions to 168,997. In the year 1850 this debt had increased to £218,300,461, and the dividend unpayable, to 345,330 persons. The revenues of a very large number of persons are thus identified with the prosperity and stability of the government they live under.

BANKS AND BANKING IN MASSACHUSETTS.

We have received through the Bank Commissioners of Massachusetts (Samuel Phillips, E. R. Colt and Wm. B. Calhoun,) their annual report, made to the Secretary of the Commonwealth, December 30th, 1853, from which it appears that the whole number of banking institutions in the State, on the 31st of December, 1852, was one hundred and thirty-seven, thirty-two of which were in Boston. The total of bank capital at that date was \$43,270,500. The whole number of savings institutions at that time was fifty-four. In this report a table is given of the banks incorporated at the last session of the Legislature, and those whose capital was increased. The aggregate of new capital derived from both sources is \$7,665,150. The addition made by Boston Banks is \$5,188,900; the addition by banks in the country is \$2,476,250; showing a total of \$7,665,150, which, added to the existing bank capital of the State, shows the amount of capital now existing to be, in the thirty-seven banks in Boston, \$29,848,900 and one hundred and fourteen out of Boston, \$21,086,750—showing a total of \$50,935,650 of banking capital in Massachusetts.

By the law establishing this Board, the Commissioners are required to visit every bank and institution for savings, at least "once in every two years;" and also to examine all banks "within the first year after they shall go into operation," as well as all banks whose capital shall be increased "within the first year after the additional stock shall be paid in." In compliance with this provision of law, the institutions referred to have all been visited and examined within the term of "two years," from the date of the commission in May, 1851. Twenty-seven banks of circulation, and the same number of savings banks, were reported in their first annual communication; eighty-five other banks, and twenty-one savings institutions were embraced in their second report, made in December, 1852; there being left at that time twenty-five banks and six savings institutions, which have been visited subsequently.

The aggregate result of these examinations is exhibited in the following tables:—

Table No. 1 exhibits a comparison between the twenty-six banks examined since January 1st and before May 18th, 1853, and the same banks, when examined in 1850—by which it will be seen that the increase of the capital of those banks is but \$100,000, (not one per cent,) while the circulation has advanced nineteen per cent. The increase of deposits and specie is about forty per cent. The rate of increase of immediate liabilities, though it falls below that of specie or deposits, exceeds the rate of immediate resources. In sixteen of these banks the specie has been increased, and in ten of them it has been diminished. The aggregate of specie shows an increase of twenty per cent. A very considerable decrease of the liabilities of directors will be noticed.

On referring to table No. 2, and comparing the result of the first examination, or that of 1850, with that of the second examination, it will appear that the capital and circulation have increased in almost the same ratio, as is the case with deposits and specie—the two latter increasing in a greater degree than the two former—and that the increase of the loan is in somewhat less proportion than that of specie or deposits, while the liability of directors has been somewhat diminished. The immediate liabilities have increased to a greater per centage than the immediate resources, and about in proportion to the specie, deposits, and loan.

SAVINGS BANKS IN MASSACHUSETTS.

In former reports of the Commissioners, the early history of Savings Banks was investigated in connection with the legislation of Massachusetts. It is evident that the public are deeply interested in them; and the extent of that interest may be learned from the subjoined statement, showing the increase, in number and amount, of deposits since 1834:—

Year,	No. of Depositors.	Amount of Deposits,	Year.	No. of Depositors.	Amount of Deposits.
1834.....	24,256	\$3,407,773 90	1844.....	49,699	\$8,261,345 18
1835.....	27,232	3,921,370 83	1845.....	58,178	9,813,287 56
1836.....	29,786	4,374,578 71	1846.....	62,893	10,680,933 10
1837.....	32,564	4,781,426 29	1847.....	68,812	11,780,812 74
1838.....	33,068	4,869,392 59	1848.....	69,894	11,970,447 64
1839.....	36,686	5,608,158 75	1849.....	71,629	12,111,553 64
1840.....	37,470	5,819,553 60	1850.....	78,823	13,660,024 34
1841.....	41,423	6,714,181 94	1851.....	86,537	15,554,088 58
1842.....	42,587	6,900,451 70	1852.....	97,353	18,401,307 86
1843.....	43,217	6,935,547 07	1853.....	117,404	23,370,102 33

CONDITION OF THE BANKS OF MASSACHUSETTS FROM 1849 TO 1853.

[PREPARED FOR THE MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE, BY DAVID M. BALFOUR.]

Year.	Number of Banks.	Capital.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Profits.	Total Liabilities.
1849.....	119	\$34,630,011	\$12,211,648	\$10,621,788	\$8,011,996	\$60,475,388
1850.....	126	36,925,050	14,139,817	11,618,912	4,627,660	67,311,439
1851.....	130	38,265,000	13,910,599	13,839,903	3,802,680	69,818,182
1852.....	137	43,370,500	17,746,096	15,541,256	5,268,473	81,826,325
1853.....	143	49,060,175	18,891,834	19,007,651	5,039,134	91,988,794

Year.	Specie.	Real Estate.	Notes, Bills of Exchange, &c.	Total Resources.	Rate of Circ'n to Specie.
1849.....	\$2,749,917	\$1,126,161	\$56,599,310	\$60,475,388	\$4.44
1850.....	2,993,178	988,236	63,330,025	67,311,439	4.72
1851.....	2,478,859	998,214	66,341,109	69,818,182	5.61
1852.....	3,563,783	1,090,463	77,172,079	81,826,325	4.98
1853.....	3,781,765	1,069,852	87,187,177	91,988,794	5.06

BANKS OF SOUTH CAROLINA IN 1854.

The following is a statement of the circulation, specie, discounts, and deposits of the banks of South Carolina, which have accepted the provisions of the act of December 18, 1840:—

	Circulation.	Specie.	Discounts.	Deposits.
Bank State South Carolina.....	\$1,822,251	\$119,118	\$1,906,660	\$548,256
Branch, Columbia.....	5,789	1,011,054	208,943
“ Camden.....
South-Western R. R.....	525,270	75,975	246,001	235,426
Planters' & Mechanics'.....	438,400	123,059	1,148,727	300,347
Union, Charleston.....	432,160	120,617	844,155	310,056
State Bank, South Carolina.....	600,060	165,160	620,356	452,552
Bank of South Carolina.....	369,407	20,503	240,526	249,595
Bank of Charleston.....	2,142,409	305,488	720,469	572,862
Farmers' & Exchange, Charleston...	914,915	223,163	2,239,374	181,082
Merchants', Cheraw.....	527,814	52,364	419,558	16,819
Commercial, Columbia.....	524,530	98,588	321,567	154,780
Planters', Fairfield.....	208,720	23,800	822,319	36,350
Bank of Chester.....	177,630	58,201	80,602	26,189
Bank of Hamburg.....	999,983	140,754	224,465	57,522
Bank of Newberry.....	463,070	21,443	120,222	20,032
Exchange Bank, Columbia.....	513,690	54,810	86,569	30,071
Bank of Camden.....	452,165	45,072	142,015	29,881
Total.....	11,110,474	1,165,754	11,210,639	3,429,708

CONDITION OF THE BANKS IN MAINE IN 1852-3.

There has been a large increase in the circulation of the Banks of Maine in 1853 over 1852. The report of the bank commissioners for 1852 shows a circulation of \$4,152,545. That for 1853, just published, gives the circulation at \$5,144,904, an increase equal to 25 per cent in a single year. We give a summary showing the comparative condition of the banks in 1852 and 1853, at the time of the examination in the months of September and October in each year:—

CONDITION OF THE MAINE BANKS.

	1852.	1853.	Increase.
Capital Stock.....	\$4,261,253 00	\$5,457,155 00	\$1,192,901 00
Circulation.....	4,152,545 00	5,144,904 00	992,359 00
Deposits.....	1,905,525 69	2,477,148 04	571,622 35
Profits.....	222,173 37	389,805 24	166,631 87
Due to banks.....	68,313 66	112,077 27	43,863 61
Loans.....	8,056,941 97	10,112,102 88	2,055,140 91
Due from banks.....	1,175,836 40	1,579,291 02	392,454 62
Foreign bills and checks.....	338,603 89	470,426 81	131,822 92
Specie.....	836,504 89	1,203,186 82	366,681 93
Paper discounted the past year..	22,000,288 21	28,790,266 73	6,789,978 52

It will be perceived that the increase of discounts in 1853 over '52 is \$6,789,978 52, or more than 32 per cent. We give below a statement showing the comparative business of the Portland banks in 1852 and 1853:—

PAPER DISCOUNTED.

	1852.	1853.
Atlantic.....	\$789,611 18	\$686,559 43
Bank of Cumberland.....	632,214 50	684,772 99
Canal.....	1,921,488 72	2,329,939 88
Casco.....	1,786,341 43	2,059,978 41
Manufacturers' and Traders'.....	488,927 96	665,542 81
Merchants'.....	445,721 37	815,668 94

CONDITION OF THE BANKS OF NEW ORLEANS.

STATEMENT OF THE BANKS IN NEW ORLEANS, ON THE 28TH OF JANUARY, 1854.

MOVEMENT OF THE BANKS.

SPECIE PAYING.

	CASH LIABILITIES.		CASH ASSETS.	
	Circulation.	Total.	Specie.	Total.
Canal Bank	\$1,384,115	\$2,402,087	\$875,881	\$3,555,886
Citizens' Bank, (Banking Department.)	2,076,895	3,942,564	1,189,906	6,214,877
Louisiana Bank	1,563,999	5,394,348	1,627,746	7,886,836
Louisiana State Bank.....	1,677,755	5,901,350	1,877,760	7,042,619
Total.....	6,702,764	17,640,849	5,571,292	24,700,218

IN LIQUIDATION.

Union Bank	25,380	393,513	184,750	410,389
Consolidated Association	13,988	14,346	14,129
Total.....	39,368	407,859	184,750	424,518

FREE BANKS.

Mechanics' & Traders.....	1,784,205	763,806	2,700,206
Bank of New Orleans	440,960	1,447,323	433,468	2,090,450
Southern Bank	264,870	565,309	203,038	1,768,466
Total.....	705,830	3,746,837	1,400,312	6,559,122

TOTAL MOVEMENT AND DEAD WEIGHT.

SPECIE PAYING.

	Liabilities, exclusive of capital.	Assets.
Citizens' Bank, (Banking Department.).....	\$2,402,087 22	\$3,623,139 17
" " (Mortgage Department.).....	500,000 00	6,496,900 09
Canal & Banking Company.....	3,942,564 30	8,260,795 66
Louisiana Bank.....	5,394,348 11	10,341,349 16
Louisiana State Bank.....	5,901,350 24	8,406,219 16
Total.....	18,140,349 87	37,128,403 24

BANKS IN LIQUIDATION.

Union Bank	393,513 15	684,855 32
Consolidated Association.....	1,454,157 51	1,184,124 77
Total.....	1,847,670 66	1,868,980 10

FREE BANKS.

Mechanics' & Traders' Bank.....	1,784,204 77	2,787,704 48
Bank of New Orleans	1,447,323 52	2,110,450 44
Southern Bank.....	565,309 32	1,794,466 47
Total.....	3,746,837 61	6,692,621 39

JOHN H. ALPUENTE, Secretary.

ABUSE OF MONEYED MEN.

Money is often cynically abused, the wealthy are often severely criticised, but those who are solid with profitable investments can take such strictures with a patient philosophy; and all the more tranquilly since it is probable they come from emaciated starvelings long in visage, lank in jaw, thin in vesture, and with no use of pockets in their pantaloons, except it may be to show that certain species are made for emptiness—and though the owners of such pockets may abhor the vacuum as much as schoolmen held that nature does, neither the owners nor nature are able to prevent the fact.

These surly satirists, who know as much about the inside of a bank as old Mr. Peasha did about the inside of a church, may be allowed without disturbance to have their bitter word; the men potent on 'change have those in plenty who will sweeten speech for them to their hearts' content. Be present at the celebration of a moneyed festival—then you will learn that there is so much of inspiration in capital, so much of worth in Commerce, so much of virtue in merchants, that if the earth is not regenerated it must be because the influence of these is counteracted by the ignorance, the vice, and the selfishness of an evil world. As it is, you are made to consider that no other energy compares with theirs in exciting genius, in upholding art, in helping literature, in rewarding study, in promoting religion, and in sustaining goodness; so that if a millennium of wisdom and worth does not exist, it is because the moneyed interest is not as yet sufficiently developed.—*Henry Giles.*

CITY PROPERTY IN OHIO.

The following, from the *State Journal*, is a list of cities and towns in the State of Ohio, the valuation of the real estate (town lots and buildings) in which exceeds three hundred thousand dollars. It also gives the list of value in 1846:—

	Total Value. To'l Value.			Total Value. To'l Value.	
	1853.	1846.		1853.	1846.
Hamilton	\$1,029,791	\$357,391	Marion	393,973	129,069
Roseville	388,328	166,040	Troy	455,898	250,060
Urbana.....	467,242	225,592	Piqua	611,275	310,538
Springfield.....	1,227,382	480,848	Dayton	5,809,928	2,551,828
Ohio City.....	2,974,788	852,686	Zanesville.....	1,788,889	1,364,576
Cleveland.....	13,723,414	2,764,128	Circleville.....	711,810	517,786
Delaware	641,894	315,192	Mansfield.....	1,000,575	454,463
Sandusky	1,862,966	651,015	Chillicothe.....	1,711,289	1,250,540
Lancaster	867,977	634,928	Fremont.....	361,748	193,746
Columbus	6,934,117	2,395,017	Portsmouth.....	1,259,187	552,960
Gallipolis	460,540	171,931	Tiffin.....	535,060	266,472
Xenia	785,001	335,005	Sidney.....	307,402	140,777
Cincinnati.....	56,275,430	27,136,752	Canton	354,423	253,598
Hillsborough	418,105	231,225	Massillon.....	457,736	396,574
Norwalk.....	342,090	148,775	Akron	613,110	368,170
Steubenville.....	885,405	653,515	Warren	346,721	244,298
Mount Vernon.....	656,054	514,226	Lebanon	308,409	194,581
Newark.....	986,265	567,152	Marietta.....	850,351	521,591
Toledo.....	1,547,190	573,129	Wooster.....	436,684	235,405

COINAGE OF THE BRITISH MINT FROM 1848 TO 1853.

The official returns of the British Mint give the annexed amount of coinage in each of the past six years:—

OPERATIONS OF THE BRITISH MINT—GOLD, SILVER, AND COPPER COINAGE.

	Sovereigns.		Half Sovereigns.		Total gold coinage.		Silver.		Copper.	
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
1848.....	2,246,701	205,298	2,451,999	35,442	2,688					
1849.....	1,755,399	422,556	2,177,955	119,592	1,793					
1850.....	1,402,039	89,798	1,491,837	129,096	448					
1851.....	4,013,625	386,787	4,400,412	87,868	3,584					
1852.....	8,053,435	688,835	8,742,270	189,596	3,796					
1853.....	10,597,993	1,354,398	11,952,391	701,545	9,078					
Total.....	28,069,192	3,147,672	31,216,864	1,263,139	21,381					

The total coinage in 1853 was upwards of twelve-and-a-half millions sterling, nearly twelve of which was of gold. Nearly one-half of the aggregate coinage in the past six years was in the year 1853.

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

IMPORTS INTO THE PORT OF NEW YORK IN 1853.

[FROM THE NEW YORK SHIPPING LIST.]

		1853.	1852.		
	Foreign.	Coastwise.	Total.		
Brandy.....	hf. pipes.	13,894	680	14,574	16,618
".....	qr. casks and bbls.	30,321	1,434	31,755	38,098
Coal.....	tons.	90,025	431	90,456	71,258
Cochineal.....	ceroons.	1,100	95	1,195	1,656
Cocoa.....	bags.	11,589	4,252	15,841	10,699
Coffee.....	pkgs.	497,205	68,178	565,383	601,170
Cotton.....	bales.	4,533	478,886	473,369	514,514
Duck.....		366	25	391	356
".....	pcs.	170	22,801	22,971	19,301
Earthenware.....	pkgs.	39,553	53	49,606	36,031
Figs.....	drums, etc.	112,963	73,568	186,530	106,652
Gin.....	casks.	6,009	68	6,077	4,065
Hemp.....	bales.	74,118	17,305	91,423	77,943
".....	tons.	268	23	291	1,130
Hides.....	bales.	562	754	1,316	1,390
".....	No.	977,178	302,013	1,279,191	1,443,949
Iron—Bar.....	tons.	52,351	1,940	54,291	41,986
Pig.....		82,234	2,215	84,449	70,061
Sheet, etc.....	bdls.	772,709	15,397	788,106	656,657
Indigo.....	cases.	2,987	641	3,628	1,926
".....	ceroons.	1,345	86	1,431	1,647
Lead.....	pigs.	276,390	112,122	388,512	393,766
Molasses.....	hhds.	55,800	11,194	66,494	72,239
".....	tierces.	3,577	1,217	4,794	5,280
".....	bbls.	6,557	47,196	53,753	47,792
Olive oil.....	casks.	219	219	1,137
".....	bxs. and bskts.	56,885	1,095	57,980	45,528
Pepper.....	bags.	51,761	8,302	60,063	36,536
Pimento.....		14,879	4,328	19,207	19,024
Rags.....	bales.	32,451	3,893	36,344	43,849
Rasins.....	casks.	9,046	482	9,528	6,840
".....	bxs. and frails.	349,096	13,441	362,537	323,161
".....	drums.	200	826	1,026	1,098
Rice.....	tierces.	20	50,366	50,386	40,415
Rum.....	punch.	2,336	31	2,367	1,568
Salt.....	bush.	2,037,444	67,997	2,105,341	2,058,396
Saltpetre.....	bags.	12,179	2,123	14,307	31,056
Sugars.....	hhds.	170,634	50,106	220,740	175,732
".....	tierces.	4,098	243	4,341	1,655
".....	bbls.	11,436	37,929	49,365	48,209
".....	bxs.	94,102	1,473	95,575	194,748
".....	bags.	267,544	26,420	293,964	111,834
Spelter.....	plates.	267,888	200	267,888	160,957
Tin—Banca, etc.....	slabs.	81,998	1,193	83,191	87,326
Tin and Terne Plates.....	bxs.	468,722	80	495,802	371,950
Tobacco.....	hhds.	38	9,894	9,932	14,602
".....	bales and ceroons.	36,824	778	37,602	43,427
Wines.....	butts and pipes.	1,282	37	1,319	1,456
".....	hhds. and half pipes.	20,925	132	21,057	21,292
".....	qr. casks.	58,710	1,592	60,292	49,999
".....	bbls.	12,811	518	13,329	12,172
".....	bxs.	69,712	1,304	98,020	78,043
Wool.....	bales.	23,388	17,527	40,915	21,145

EXPORTS FROM THE PORT OF NEW YORK IN 1853.

	1853.	1852.
Ashes—Pot.....bbls.	11,573	16,945
Pearl.....	1,525	1,383
Bark—Quercitron.....hbds.	1,533	1,527
".....bags.	8,246	9,575
Beeswax.....lbs.	227,330	302,400
Bread.....bbls.	37,648	30,648
Candles.....bxs.	49,803	71,164
Clover seed.....tierces.	5,450	2,627
Coal.....tons.	33,833	33,366
Cocoa.....bags.	10,756	4,590
Coffee.....	82,470	65,106
Corn meal.....punchs.	1,639	2,256
".....bbls.	43,012	37,211
Cotton.....bales.	290,446	349,373
Domestic cotton goods.....pkgs.	34,662	54,044
Dyewoods—Logwood.....tons.	6,573	8,714
Fustic.....	1,529	1,810
Fish—Codfish.....cwt.	26,182	27,050
Mackerel, and other pickled fish.....bbls.	14,218	15,461
Flour—Wheat.....	2,309,703	1,304,206
Rye.....	5,582	5,577
Flax seed.....tierces.	600	3,309
Furs and skins.....pkgs.	2,373	4,275
Grain—Corn.....bush.	1,184,223	763,612
Wheat.....	8,184,249	3,331,948
Rye.....	44,397	249,083
Oats.....	81,709	14,284
Gunpowder.....kegs.	23,081	22,878
Hemp.....bales.	2,264	200
Hops.....	292	577
Indigo.....cases.	33	29
".....ceroons.	176	262
Lead.....pigs.	6,245	18,743
Lumber—Boards, plank, etc.....M feet.	22,749	10,576
Staves.....M.	8,634	9,513
Hoops.....	2,576	3,046
Shingles.....	1,173	3,264
Nails.....kegs.	17,063	7,445
Naval stores—Turpentine.....bbls.	135,175	193,491
Spirits turpentine.....	26,318	7,481
Resin.....	308,769	227,669
Tar.....	14,560	15,299
Oil Cake.....tons.	11,733	8,883
Oils—Whale.....gallons.	103,790	65,658
Sperm.....	1,062,310	918,457
Red, lard, etc.....	52,425	40,566
Provisions—Beef.....tierces.	21,699	20,547
Beef.....bbls.	82,900	25,079
Pork.....	72,641	39,751
Butter.....cwt.	20,033	7,135
Cheese.....	88,002	16,880
Hams and bacon.....	111,996	14,259
Lard.....kegs.	153,194	98,282
Rice.....tierces.	26,048	26,111
Soap.....boxes.	37,907	45,143
Spices—Cassia.....cases.	524	3,645
Cassia.....mata.	24,455	54,073
Pepper.....bags.	11,513	1,750
Pimento.....	7,334	10,755
Sugar—Muscovado.....hbds.	4,580	859
Havana.....boxes.	18,202	4,439
Manilla, etc.....bags.	67,631	5,600

	1853.	1852.
Refined	cwt. 8,484	7,416
Tallow	38,289	4,356
Teas	pkgs. 7,950	14,759
"	pkgs. 28,449	10,559
Tobacco	hhd. 7,654	8,186
"	bales, etc. 17,994	17,441
" Manufactured	cwt. 49,887	51,266
Whalebone	35,337	11,861
Wool	bales. 246	408

THE RIVER IMPORTS OF ST. LOUIS IN 1853.

In a former part of the present number of the *Merchants' Magazine* we have published the annual history of the trade and Commerce of St. Louis, for the year ending January 1st, 1854. We give below from the same reliable source a full tabular statement of the river imports of St. Louis during the same period. This table, which we have condensed, the editors of the *Missouri Republican* introduce with the following remarks, which are worthy of notice:—

The following table of receipts will, we feel confident, be found of no little interest. Heretofore such compilations have been confined to a limited number of products, embracing only the principal staples of the country. It was deemed proper, particularly at this time, while works of internal improvements are in progress and in contemplation at different points, calculated to affect the Commerce of St. Louis, to give the receipts from the different rivers separately, and to embrace in the list a large number of articles heretofore considered unimportant. Another object, was to show the whole range of agricultural products, however insignificant many of them might appear, as indications of the character of the soil and climate for their cultivation. We also wished to exhibit the fact, that in many articles of manufacture, both of wood and metals, we are dependent upon the industry, enterprise, and ingenuity of other States for nearly the whole supply which our demand requires; this, too, while this section has ample stores of the raw material superior in texture, and capable of being procured in the cheapest possible manner. With the most inexhaustible quantities of iron and copper ore, we import nearly all the articles manufactured out of these metals, such as nails and castings of every description. Sand is taken from the State to be returned from Pittsburgh in the shape of glass. Our forests are filled with timber suitable for the finest furniture, and we import bureaus, sofas, chairs, bedsteads, buckets, and a hundred other articles of like character. We export rags and import paper to an immense amount, as the compiled table shows. The attention of the reader is directed to the imports from the Ohio. It will be found, besides the articles already enumerated, that cheese, soap, starch, candles, manufactured tobacco, ale, oil, butter, and other commodities, foot up a large sum. Fields of enterprise lie unoccupied in our very midst; and if this compilation shall lead to their occupancy, the object we have in view in presenting it will be accomplished.

We have heretofore said, and the statement is confirmed by others, that the mechanical labor and means expended on manufactured articles brought to this city give employment and support to a population of 50,000 persons. The table herewith appended is intended more to show the variety of these importations than their amount. Indeed, our statistics with regard to quantity will be found lame, as many of the Ohio boats never designate articles composing their cargoes, but simply enumerate them under the general head of packages. We have not, therefore, in the items of iron, furniture, &c., carried out the aggregate. A true enumeration would give many times over the sum compiled.

An increase in the manufactures of the city—particularly in articles of iron—is perceptible. The best steam-engines on the river are now made by the ingenious mechanics of St. Louis; while, upon the Pacific Railroad, many of the locomotives in use, as well as the highly-finished cars, attest the ability of our artisans. The day cannot be far distant when this subject will enlist the co-operation of capitalists, and when, added to the commercial enterprises of St. Louis, manufactories of all descriptions shall be established commensurate to the existing and growing demand, and the entire energies of the country employed for the full development of the resources of the State.

TABLE OF RECEIPTS AT THE PORT OF ST. LOUIS FOR THE YEAR 1853, SHOWING THE AMOUNTS FROM EACH RIVER SEPARATELY, AND THE GRAND TOTAL OF EACH ARTICLE. IN THIS COMPILATION, THE UPPER AND LOWER MISSISSIPPI ARE EMBRACED UNDER ONE HEAD, AS ARE ALSO THE OHIO AND ITS TRIBUTARIES:—

Articles.	Rivers.	Total.	Grnd tot'l.	Articles.	Rivers.	Total.	Grnd tot'l.
Ale, bbls.....	Ohio	9,985		Coal, casks.....	Ills...	187	
.....	Miss.	149	10,134	Ohio	387	
Barley, sks.....	Ills...	2,572		Miss.	1,787	2,811
.....	Mo..	226		Cement, bbls.....	Ills...	3,134	
.....	Ohio	6,221		Ohio	2,396	
.....	Miss.	53,061	62,080	Miss.	1,490	7,020
Beans, pkgs.....	Ills...	760		Corn-meal, pkgs....	Ills...	199	
.....	Mo..	892		Miss.	748	947
.....	Ohio	3,331		Cotton yarn, bags..	Mo..	20	
.....	Miss.	4,285	9,768	Ohio	8,500	
Bran, sks.....	Ills...	6,891		Miss.	161	8,681
.....	Mo..	2,624		Candles, bxs.....	Ills...	70	
.....	Miss.	28,641	38,156	Mo..	50	
Brooms, doz.....	Ills...	17,151		Ohio	2,475	
.....	Mo..	25		Miss.	110	2,705
.....	Ohio	1,285		Cigars, bxs.....	Ills...	38	
.....	Miss.	1,602	20,063	Mo..	189	
Butter, pkgs.....	Ills...	2,622		Ohio	32	
.....	Mo..	1,265		Miss.	373	631
.....	Ohio	1,483		Crackers, bbls....	Miss.	...	623
.....	Miss.	3,954	9,324	Corn mills.....	Ohio	12	
Bark, tan, sks....	Ohio	...	5,276	Miss.	784	796
.....	Ohio	...	12	Chains, doz.....	Ills...	...	
Batting, bales...	Ills...	210		Ohio	...	
.....	Mo..	140		Miss.	...	
.....	Ohio	3,651		Castings, pcs.....	Ills...	...	
.....	Miss.	1,508	5,509	Ohio	...	
Bagging, rolls...	Ills...	598		Miss.	...	
.....	Mo..	1,213		Demijohns.....	Ohio	465	
.....	Miss.	515	2,326	Miss.	2,377	2,842
Beef, bbls.....	Ills...	755		Eggs, pks.....	Ills...	307	
.....	Mo..	213		Mo..	1,431	
.....	Miss.	4,546	5,514	Ohio	56	
Buffalo robes, pks.	Mo..	8,804		Miss.	1,020	2,814
.....	pcs. Mo..	...	9,193	Flour, bbls.....	Ills...	45,131	
.....	Miss.	389	1,731	Mo..	9,264	
Burr stones.....	Miss.	1,781	1,624	Ohio	2,090	
Baskets, nests...	Miss.	...	1,018	Miss.	143,718	200,203
Corn, sks.....	Ills...	163,813		Flour, sks.....	Mo..	798	
.....	Mo..	81,378		Ohio	361	
.....	Miss.	264,001	459,192	Miss.	2,559	3,393
Cheese, bxs.....	Ills...	93		Fruit, dried, sks..	Ills...	268	
.....	Mo..	8		Mo..	6,287	
.....	Ohio	26,106		Ohio	10,308	
.....	Miss.	1,039	27,246	Miss.	9,286	26,149
Cotton, bales.....	Ohio	303		Fruit, dried, bbls..	Ills...	812	
.....	Miss.	610	913	Mo..	4,497	
Cooperage, pcs....	Ills...	34,296		Ohio	605	
.....	Mo..	16,040		Miss.	5,436	11,350
.....	Ohio	2,915		Feathers, pkgs....	Ills...	2	
.....	Miss.	44,790	98,141	Mo..	588	
Cattle, head.....	Ills...	397		Ohio	54	
.....	Mo..	1,466		Miss.	625	1,269
.....	Ohio	121		Fish, pkgs.....	Ills...	554	
.....	Miss.	1,187	3,171	Ohio	1,275	
Coffee, sks.....	Miss.	...	104,467	Miss.	6,645	8,474

Articles.	Rivers.	Total.	Gr'nd tot'l.	Articles.	Rivers.	Total.	Gr'nd tot'l.
Furniture, pkgs...	Ohio	4,807		Lard, bbls.....	Ills..	5,576	
	Miss.	998	5,800		Mo..	2,514	
Grease, pkgs.....	Ills..	263			Miss.	15,152	23,242
	Mo..	157		kegs.....	Ills..	4,605	
	Miss.	286	1,246		Mo..	1,945	
Glass, bxs.....	Ills..	89			Miss.	6,501	13,051
	Ohio	20,876		cans, &c.....	Ills..	2,148	
	Miss.	304	21,269		Mo..	978	
Grindstones.....	Ohio	3,749			Miss.	712	3,838
	Miss.	80	3,829	Leather, rolls.....	Ills..	721	
Gun'ies, b'l's & bnds	Ohio	2,377			Mo..	45	
	Miss.	10,477	12,854		Ohio	12,079	
Gumpowder.....	Ills..	3,718			Miss.	1,821	14,666
	Miss.	7,302	11,020	Liquors, pkgs.....	Ills..	34	
Hides.....	Ills..	16,430			Mo..	28	
	Mo..	28,778			Ohio	3,351	
	Ohio	506			Miss.	6,535	9,948
	Miss.	55,728	101,440	Lead, pigs.....	Mo..	5,815	
Hay, bales.....	Ills..	7,069			Miss.	436,903	442,218
	Miss.	15,176	22,245	Lime, bbls.....	Ohio	194	
Hogs.....	Ills..	2,679			Miss.	8,124	8,318
	Mo..	4,350		Meats, pkgs.....	Ills..	7,378	
	Miss.	13,406	20,435		Mo..	3,610	
Hops, bales.....	Ills..	132			Miss.	9,292	20,280
	Mo..	55		pieces.....	Mo..	6,284	
	Ohio	924			Miss.	1,495	7,779
	Miss.	73	1,184	bulk.....	Ills..	161,900	
Hair, pkgs.....	Ills..	837			Mo..	93,595	
	Mo..	90			Miss.	239,791	495,286
	Ohio	3,268		tierces.....	Mo..	225	
	Miss.	565	4,760		Miss.	63	228
Hemp, bales.....	Mo..	59,623		Molasses, bbls.....	Miss.	53,544
	Ills..	238		Marble, pkgs.....	Ills..	247	
	Miss.	3,489	63,350		Ohio	168	
Horses.....	Ills..	214			Miss.	3,545	3,960
	Mo..	231		Moss, bales.....	Ohio	29	
	Ohio	155			Miss.	692	721
	Miss.	573	1,173	Malt, pkgs.....	Ohio	430	
Honey, pkgs.....	Ills..	210			Miss.	375	805
	Mo..	65		Marble Dust, bbls.	Ohio	75	
	Miss.	27	302		Miss.	130	205
Iron, bndls.....	Ills..	...		Nails, kegs.....	Ohio	53,092	
	Ohio	...			Miss.	15,875	68,967
	Miss.	...		Oats, sacks.....	Ills..	121,939	
pieces.....	Ohio	...			Mo..	3,910	
bars.....	Ohio	...			Ohio	93	
	Miss.	...			Miss.	338,120	464,062
pkgs.....	Mo..	...		Onions, aks.....	Ills..	1,577	
	Ohio	...			Mo..	22	
bar, tons.....	Ohio	...			Ohio	30	
pig.....	Mo..	...			Miss.	25,378	27,007
	Ohio	...		Oysters, pgs.....	Ills..	1,018	
	Miss.	...			Ohio	2,272	
pca.....	Mo..	...			Miss.	3,001	6,291
	Ohio	...		Oil, pkgs.....	Ills..	183	
	Miss.	...			Ohio	1,567	
bloom, ps.....	Mo..	...			Miss.	1,139	2,889
	Miss.	...		Pork, bbls.....	Ills..	36,025	
bloom, tns.....	Mo..	...			Mo..	3,129	
	Miss.	...			Miss.	32,365	71,519
Lard, tcs.....	Ills..	5,839		Do., bbls., cks., tcs.	Ills..	3,919	
	Mo..	1,533			Mo..	39	
	Miss.	4,188	11,560		Miss.	327	4,285

Articles.	Rivers.	Total.	Grnd Tot ^l	Articles.	Rivers.	Total.	Grnd Tot ^l
Pork & Lard, bbls. Illa.	675			Salt, bbls. Ohio	69,832	
Mo..	57		732	Soda Ash, pks. Missa	1,085	
Do, bbls. & trcs. Illa.	405			Sand, bbls. Ohio	94		579
Mo..	880			Missa	485		
Poultry Coops. Illa.	1,399		2,184	Saleratus, pks. Illa.	1,333		
Mo..	805			Ohio	60		
Missa	250			Missa	847		2,240
Paper, bndls. Ohio	216		771	Sheep. Illa.	145		
Missa	68,168			Mo..	1,053		
Potatoes, pks. Illa.	801		68,969	Ohio	114		
Mo..	11,103			Missa	2,012		3,324
Ohio	675			Tallow, pks. Illa.	357		
Missa	1,409			Mo..	277		
Plows. Illa.	59,087		72,224	Ohio	227		
Mo..	1,104			Missa	523		1,384
Ohio	109			Tobacco, hhds. Illa.	5		
Missa	42			Mo..	8,078		
Plaster. Ohio	1,032		2,287	Ohio	47		
Missa	84			Missa	1,973		10,102
Pipes, boxes. Illa.	1,218		1,252	boxes. Illa.	180		
Missa	55			Mo..	5,006		
Rags, sacks. Illa.	950		1,005	Ohio	2,063		
Mo..	2,420			Missa	8,279		10,528
Ohio	717			bdls, &c. Illa.	55		
Missa	10			Ohio	197		
Rye, sacks. Illa.	1,320		4,467	Missa	718		970
Mo..	797			Tin, boxes. Ohio	19		
Ohio	120			Missa	12,093		12,112
Missa	42			Turpentine, bbls. Missa	1,263	
Rope, coils. Illa.	13,788		14,747	Tar, bbls. Missa	6,959	
Mo..	32			Twine, sks. Illa.	79		
Ohio	58,029			Mo..	8		
Missa	222			Ohio	26		
Rice, trcs. Missa	5,154		58,437	Missa	14		127
Rosin & pitch, bbls. Missa		2,862	Tow, bales. Illa.	141		
Raisins, boxes. Missa		5,089	Mo..	271		412
Saddle-trees. Mo..		10,149	Wheat, sks. Illa.	455,612		
Ohio	914			Mo..	104,817		
Seed, pks. Illa.	177		1,091	Ohio	10,238		
Mo..	2,865			Missa	488,768		1,009,435
Ohio	1,981			bbls. Illa.	13,412		
Missa	1,108			Mo..	529		
Shorts, sks. Illa.	15,484		21,388	Ohio	1,187		
Missa	2,243			Missa	2,189		17,267
Skins, Furs, and	2,182		4,425	Whisky, bbls. Illa.	20,335		
Peltries, bndls. Illa.			Mo..	291		
Mo..	444			Ohio	2,127		
Ohio	5,007			Missa	27,117		49,870
Missa	245			Wool, sacks. Illa.	103		
Starch, boxes. Ohio	3,716		9,412	Mo..	1,212		
Missa	4,093			Missa	837		1,152
Soap, boxes. Ohio	42		4,135	Wine, pks. Illa.	99		
Missa	6,189			Ohio	745		
Sugar, hhds. Missa	1,582		7,771	Missa	11,079		11,923
Mo..	50,774			Wax, pks. Illa.	9		
Ohio	13,973			Mo..	268		
Missa	40,257			Ohio	11		
Syrup, bbls. Missa	868			Missa	159		447
Salt, sacks. Missa		208,969				

STATISTICS OF THE BRITISH SUGAR TRADE.

The colonist, in theorizing on the fall of prices and the increase of production, will find his inquiries considerably strengthened by a parliamentary document which has

recently been given to the world. It relates to that most important article of production, sugar—the consumption of which has so enormously increased with the diminution of price. The following return is conclusive as to the vast productive power of the British Colonies, since they came into anything like competition with the slave grown article. It ought to be stated that molasses is converted into sugar at the ratio of three pounds of molasses for one pound of sugar.

QUANTITIES OF SUGAR AND MOLASSES ENTERED FOR HOME CONSUMPTION.

Years ending July 5.	British Poss'ns.—Cwt.	Foreign.	Total.
1842.....	4,325,785	2,189	4,327,974
1843.....	4,089,593	498	4,090,091
1844.....	4,145,044	93	4,145,137
1845.....	4,849,060	34,584	4,883,644
1846.....	4,985,792	50,064	5,045,856
1847.....	4,723,232	1,256,421	5,979,653
1848.....	5,002,318	865,752	5,869,070
1849.....	5,233,729	1,021,065	6,254,794
1850.....	5,570,181	752,027	6,322,488
1851.....	5,048,872	1,522,405	6,566,277
1852.....	6,115,210	1,540,408	7,655,518
1853.....	6,519,267	1,033,095	7,552,363

Here we find an increase in ten years of something like 50 per cent in the production of colonial sugar—the effect of that competition which is so much in favor with modern political economists. The fact of an increase of more than 2,000,000 cwt. in the years embraced in this return, even with the duties nearly equalized, is presented to us, showing that the exhaustive capacities of the British Colonies is far from arrived. But the last straw is proverbial for breaking the camel's back—and as regards the West Indies, it is quite clear that without some effort being made to furnish them with more manual labor, this fearful race cannot long be sustained. The fall, too, in price, has been commensurate with the power to produce; for, while in 1842 West India brown sugar was 37s., it fell last year to 24s., a decline of more than 50 per cent. At the first-named time Cuba sugar of the same quality was only 19s. 6d., but then it was subject to the prohibitory duty of 66s., so that the saving to the mother country may be computed at nearly half a score of millions sterling.

In connection with this subject, the following table cannot fail to be studied with interest by the tropical reader, for it exhibits the capacity of this country to consume at a low price; and it also demonstrates how amazingly the revenue has been improved from the same cause. Indeed, it has been ascertained, on reliable authority that the public of Great Britain now use more sugar than any nation in existence for while with us the consumption is 30 lbs. per head per annum, in France it is only 8 lbs. per head, in Prussia 6 lbs., in Belgium 14 lbs., and even in the United States, where the material comforts of the people are greatly in advance of Europe, the consumption is only 20 lbs. per head.

AGGREGATE RECEIPTS OF DUTY ON SUGAR AND MOLASSES.

Years ending July 5.	British Possessions.	Foreign.	Total.
1842.....	£5,476,987	£8,026	£5,485,013
1843.....	5,176,631	1,665	5,178,296
1844.....	5,253,687	319	5,254,006
1845.....	4,955,221	40,777	4,995,998
1846.....	3,514,354	70,335	3,584,689
1847.....	3,326,947	1,336,615	4,663,562
1848.....	3,522,288	877,378	4,399,666
1849.....	3,430,527	993,407	4,423,934
1850.....	3,371,976	699,969	4,071,934
1851.....	2,793,898	1,343,624	4,137,518
1852.....	3,077,561	1,276,042	4,353,603
1853.....	3,231,142	800,128	4,031,270

This year the difference in point of duty, between colonial and foreign sugar, entirely ceases,—and no doubt, with the present increase of wages on the part of the laboring classes in England, and the increased stimulus which will then exist for the possession of the home market, consumption will go on still faster, and the revenue will be correspondingly benefited.—*European Times*.

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

BUENOS AYRES CUSTOM-HOUSE LAW.

SANCTIONED BY THE HONORABLE CHAMBER OF REPRESENTATIVES FOR THE YEAR 1854.

CHAPTER I.—Imports. Art. 1. Gold and silver, coined or in bullion, precious stones not set, books and printing materials, ornaments for churches, and generally any object destined for public worship, as also the productions of this and the other Argentine provinces in general, are declared free from any duty on their introduction into this province.

Art. 2. Wrought gold and silver, manufactured with or without precious stones, silk manufactures embroidered with gold or silver, every instrument or utensil with handles, or ornaments of said metals, machines for the use or exercise of any industry, quicksilver, coals, wood, charcoal, salt, saltpeter, gypsum, building stones, lime bricks, staves, rafters, masts, undressed timber, and prepared for maritime or land construction, unwrought brass or steel, copper in leaves or sheets, lead in bars or sheets, tin sheets, iron in sheets and bars, soldering materials of tin, tortoise shell, talc, hops, cane for chairs, and in general raw material for industrial arts, shall pay an *ad valorem* duty of 5 per cent.

Art. 3. Wools and furs for manufactures shall pay 10 per cent.

Art. 4. Raw and sewing silk, and all manufactures of said material, shall pay 12 per cent.

Art. 5. Manufactures of wool, flax, and cotton, articles of metal, those of gold and silver excepted, papers of all kinds, including that for printing, instruments and utensils of science or art, drugs, and all other articles not comprehended in the dispositions of this law, shall pay 15 per cent.

Art. 6. Ready-made clothes of wool, flax, and cotton, boots and shoes, riding saddles, horse harness, sugar, tobacco, *yerba mate*, coffee, tea, chocolate, olive oil, and in general all provisions, shall pay 20 per cent.

Art. 7. From the preceding article are excepted wheat, flour, and Indian corn, the first of which shall pay the equivalent of 12 rials silver per fanega, the second a like sum per cwt., and the third the equivalent of 1 dollar silver per fanega.

Art. 8. Liquids and spirituous liquors in general shall pay 25 per cent.

Art. 9. The charge of portage for articles not to be deposited, shall be one current dollar each package, in proportion to their weight and bulk.

Art. 10. The leakage allowed on wines, ardent spirits, liquors, beer, and vinegar, in wood, shall be calculated according to the port where the vessel loaded, allowing 10 per cent for ports situated on the other side of the line, 6 per cent from ports on this side, and 3 per cent from ports within the Capes.

Art. 11. The allowance for breakage on bottled liquids shall be 5 per cent, having come from the other side of the line, 4 per cent from this side, and 2 per cent from within the Capes, St. Mary, and St. Antonio.

CHAPTER II.—Exports. Art. 12. Bull, ox, and cow hides, and calf skins, shall pay two dollars each.

Art. 13. Skins of mules and wild horses shall pay one dollar each.

Art. 14. Sheep skins shall pay three dollars per dozen.

Art. 15. Skunk skins, and other skins not enumerated in the preceding articles, as also ostrich feathers, shall pay 4 per cent on their marketable value.

Art. 16. Jerked beef, and salt beef in barrels, shall pay three dollars per cwt.

Art. 17. Salted tongues in barrels shall pay four rials per dozen.

Art. 18. As live stock, black cattle shall pay six dollars each, horses four dollars each, swine and sheep two dollars each.

Art. 19. Animal oil, tallow, and grease, melted or raw, shall pay 12 rials per arroba.

Art. 20. Hair and wool, dirty or washed, shall pay two dollars per arroba.

Art. 21. Bones, horns, and horn-tips shall pay 4 per cent on their marketable value.

Art. 22. Any product or manufacture of the province, not included in the foregoing articles, and in general all the fruits and productions of the Argentine provinces, are free from duty on their exportation.

Art. 23. Gold and silver, coined or in bullion, are also free from duty.

CHAPTER III.—Imports by Land. Art. 24. The fruits and products of the Argentine Provinces are exempt from duties.

Art. 25. The introduction by land of any foreign article of merchandise subject to custom-house duty is prohibited.

CHAPTER IV.—Of the manner in which the duties are to be calculated. Art. 26. The duties shall be calculated upon the wholesale market prices by inspector, assisted by appraisers.

Art. 27. Should an article consist of two or more materials, that have different duties assigned to them by this law, the one corresponding to that which pays the highest duty shall be recovered.

Art. 28. The inspectors shall be assisted by appraisers for the valuation of the articles to be dispatched for consumption; the inspector of liquids and provisions by one who is conversant with these articles; the three inspectors of manufactured articles shall be accompanied each by two appraisers, one of whom must be conversant with the price of manufactured goods in general, and the other with the value of hardware.

Art. 29. The collector of the custom-house shall pass yearly to the Tribunal of Commerce a list of ten dealers in liquids and provisions, thirty dealers in soft goods, and thirty dealers in hardware.

Art. 30. The appraiser who is to accompany the inspector of liquids and provisions shall be drawn by lot from the first ten; the other six appraisers shall be drawn by lot separately, one-half from the dealers in soft goods, and the other from those in hardware.

Art. 31. The lots shall be drawn by the Tribunal of Commerce every three months, beginning on the 31st of December. Vacancies will be supplied by lot, on the notice of the collector.

Art. 32. The appraisers shall discharge this duty for three consecutive months, without entering into ballot for the remainder of the year.

Art. 33. The appraisers shall attend daily at the dispatch of the articles, and, conjointly with the inspector, and in presence of the party interested, shall fix the valuation, which shall be noted by the inspector.

Art. 34. The appraisers shall attend at the office of the inspector on the following day to methodize the valuation made on the preceding day, at which the party interested may attend, and the manifest being signed by the inspector and the appraisers, and the date having been appended, the former shall remit it to the collector-general for its immediate liquidation.

Art. 35. Should any difference exceeding 10 per cent on the valuation, arise between the inspector and the party interested, three import merchants shall decide thereon, before the collector of the custom-house.

Art. 36. The merchant arbiters shall be taken by lot from a list of twelve, which shall be formed yearly for said purpose, by the Tribunal of Commerce.

Art. 37. The arbiters when met must decide before separating, and their sentence shall be carried into effect without appeal.

Art. 38. The amount of the duty exceeding one thousand dollars, the merchants shall accept bills, for equal installments, at the peremptory terms of 3 and 6 months.

Art. 39. No one indebted to the custom-house after the expiration of this term shall be admitted to dispatch in the office.

Art. 40. The alterations made in the import and export duties by the present law shall come into effect from and after the 1st of January, 1854.

Art. 41. The present law shall be revised annually.

Art. 42. Let it be communicated to the executive power.

ACT OF IOWA REGULATING INTEREST ON MONEY.

The following act passed both Houses of the Legislature of Iowa, January 12th, 1853, and is now the law of that State:—

AN ACT TO REGULATE THE INTEREST ON MONEY.

Sec. 1. *Be it enacted by the General Assembly of the State of Iowa:* That the rate of interest shall be six cents on the hundred, by the year, on money due by express contract, unless a different rate be expressed in writing on all money, after the same becomes due, when there is no contract fixing the rate of interest; on judgment and decrees for the payment of money, when no other rate is expressed; on money lent, without a contract fixing the rate of interest; and on money received for the use of another, and retained beyond a reasonable time, without the owner's consent, express

or implied; on money due on settlement of mutual accounts, from the day when the balance is ascertained; on money due upon open account, after six months from the date of the last item; and on all money due, or to become due, when there is a contract to pay interest, and no rate stipulated.

Sec. 2. Parties may agree, in writing, for the payment of interest not exceeding ten cents on the hundred, by the year.

Sec. 3. Interest shall be allowed on all moneys due on judgments and decrees of any competent court or tribunal, at the rate of six per cent per annum, unless a different rate is fixed by the contract on which the judgment or decree is rendered; in which case the judgment or decree shall draw interest at the rate expressed in the contract, but no judgment or decree shall draw more than ten per cent per annum, which rate must be expressed in the judgment or decree.

Sec. 4. No person shall, directly or indirectly, receive in money, goods, or things in action, or in any other manner, any greater sum or value, for the loan of money, or upon contract founded upon any bargain, sale or loan of wares, merchandise, goods, chattels, lands and tenements, than is in this act prescribed.

Sec. 5. If it shall be ascertained in any suit brought on any contract, that a rate of interest has been contracted for greater than is authorized by this act, either directly or indirectly, in money, property, or any other valuable thing, the same shall work a forfeiture of ten per cent per annum, upon the amount of such contract, to the school fund of the county in which the suit is brought, and the plaintiff shall have judgment for the principal sum, without either interest or costs. The court in which said suit is prosecuted shall render judgment for the amount of interest forfeited as aforesaid, against defendant, in favor of the State of Iowa, for the use of school fund of said county, whether said suit is contested or not, and in all cases, when the unlawful interest is not apparent on the contract, or writing, the person contracting to pay the unlawful interest shall be a lawful witness to prove that the contract is usurious, and in no case, where unlawful interest is contracted for, shall the plaintiff have judgment for more than the principal sum, whether the unlawful interest be incorporated with the principal or not.

Sec. 6. Nothing in this act shall be construed so as to prevent the proper *bona fide* assignee of any usurious contract recovering against the usurer the full amount of the consideration paid by him for such contract, less the amount of the principal money, but the same may be recovered of such usurer in the proper action, before any court having competent jurisdiction.

Sec. 7. So much of chapter 57, title 12, of the code, as may conflict with the provisions of this act is hereby repealed. This act to take effect in thirty days from and after its publication in the *Iowa Capital Reporter and Republican*.

POSTAGE ON PRINTED MATTER IN CUBA.

We are authorized to say that the Postmaster-general has received, through the Department of State, official information of the increase of postage on printed matter in the island of Cuba to just double the former rates. The following extract of a royal decree of the 9th November, 1853, published by order of the Captain-general in the Havana Official Gazette of the 13th January, 1854, will explain itself. The rates therein stated are, of course, in addition to the United States postage, which has to be prepaid on all similar publications sent to Cuba. The decree provides that:—

Foreign newspapers, coming from any country whatsoever, shall pay one rial (12½ cents) per ounce, if loose, and eight dollars per *arroba*, (25 Spanish pounds,) should they come direct from the editors' offices; provided that their agents in this island give the necessary security to the effect that the package contain no other printed matter but that designated on the band they must be covered with, nor any private ciphers or other manuscript but that of the address. No charge to be made for inland conveyance.

Periodicals of any other class, including also pamphlets taking that title, and books published in periodical numbers, shall pay twenty-five cents (2 rials) per ounce, if loose, twelve dollars per *arroba*, (25 Spanish pounds,) when proceeding direct from the editors' offices, and provided they are inclosed in the requisite form. Such publications, to circulate through the island, must pay twenty-five cents per ounce, if loose and six dollars per *arroba*.

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS IN CHINA.

CUSTOM DUES, ETC., AT HONG KONG, WHAMPOA, AND CANTON.

PORT DUES. All laden vessels above 150 tons (rice excepted.) coming to Wanpoa are charged at the rate of 5 mace (or 70 cents) per ton, and those below 150 tons pay only at the rate of 1 mace (or 14 cents.) Rice laden vessels leaving the port in ballast are free of tonnage dues and linguist's fee, which is \$10 per ship of 150 tons burden. Pilotage is charged at the rate of 5 cents per ton inward and outward.

DUTIES. Duties on import goods are paid by the importers, and on exports by the seller, according to the tariff. Cotton is, however, generally sold duty paid by the purchaser, by a reduction of 8 mace per pecul on the market rate, for duty, landing, and warehouse charges.

Port dues and all other duties are paid in Sycee silver, with an allowance of about $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent for loss in melting, difference of scale, &c.

Besides tariff duty all goods are subject to a fee paid to the linguists, according to its quality.

Payments for goods are generally made at 2 per cent discount for cash, or on two months time, in Sp. dra., at 717 or 716 taels per 1,000 drs. The tael is divided in 10 mace, the mace in 10 candarin, and the candarin in 10 cash, equivalent to 1.40 drs.

WEIGHTS. The weight generally in use is that of pecul of 100 catties or 1,600 taels, equal to 133 $\frac{1}{2}$ lbs. avoirdupois.

TONNAGE DUES ON COAL-LADEN VESSELS AT HAVANA.

With date of 9th February, 1854, the government has published the following in relation to coal burden vessels, viz.:—

1. That vessels arriving at the ports of this island with coal, in quantity equal or exceeding register tonnage, will continue to enjoy the exemptions at present allowed, even when bringing other merchandise.

2. Vessels bringing coal as their sole cargo, in less quantities than their measurement, will be exempt from tonnage dues to the amount of cargo, but will be subject to pay duties on the difference between that amount and measurement of vessel, but will be allowed the other exemption.

3. Vessels bringing the full amount of coal with other cargo, shall be exempt from tonnage dues, but subject to ponton, health, coast regulations, and other corresponding fees.

4. Vessels discharging coal, stowing 20 per cent less than specified in manifest, certified by the consul at the port of clearance, will lose all right to any exemption whatever. This decree will extend to the term of one year from date; and should it be found to answer, will be made permanent, or otherwise it will be revoked.

NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

ANONYMA ROCK, PORT PHILIP BAY.

PORT AND HARBOR OFFICE.
Williamstown, Australia, Nov. 7, 1853.

Commanders of vessels working up the east side of Port Philip Bay, are requested to take notice that a chequered buoy has been placed upon the 8 foot rock off the Red Bluff, which has been ascertained to lie nearly two (2) miles closer in shore than the position assigned to it in the charts. Commanders are recommended to notice the following bearings, and lay the rock's position down on their charts:—

Magnetic Position of the Anonyma Rock. Lighthouse, Gilibrand's Point. Center of the Red Bluff E. by S. A small white cliff, some distance north of the Red Bluff N. E. $\frac{1}{2}$ E.

The Anonyma Rock lies a mile off shore, the least water on it being eight (8) feet, at low tide, with five (5) fathoms just outside, and a clear passage half a mile on the inside of it, with three (3) and four (4) fathoms, sandy bottom.

NOBLE CONDUCT OF AN AMERICAN CAPTAIN.

The following notice of the noble conduct of the master of a whaling ship was received some time since by WALTER R. JONES, Esq., President of the Atlantic Mutual Insurance Company, and was forwarded to the *Merchants' Magazine* for publication. It was, however, mislaid; but its publication at this time, a month or two since it fell under our notice, will not be too late for record in the pages of our journal.

The Mauritius (Isle of France) *Mercantile Gazette* contains an account of the British bark Meridian, from London for Sydney, on the island of Amsterdam, lat. 39 S., long. 78 E. The Meridian struck on a rock on the southern end of the island, on the 24th of August. Her bottom fell out, and she keeled over to an angle of 45 degrees. Fortunately it was high water, and the parts held together until the crew and passengers, 105 in number, got upon the cliff. Among the passengers were 17 women and 46 children, all of whom passed six days on the barren rocks, sheltered only by a piece of canvas. The shipwrecked parties were beginning to experience the sufferings of famine, when they were discovered by the American whaleship Monmouth, of Cold Spring, Long Island, commanded by Captain Isaac Ludlow.

Captain Ludlow, finding it impossible to approach the spot where the unfortunates were gathered, made signals to them to cross to the other side of the island. This was a work of such extreme difficulty and danger as to require a journey of three days for its accomplishment. They felt that their labors were rewarded, however, on the fourth day, when they found themselves once more treading the planks of a stout ship, surrounded by a circle of humane and generous Yankee sailors, and their wants ministered to. Captain Ludlow immediately sailed for Mauritius, where he arrived after a seventeen days' voyage. After landing, the persons saved held a meeting, and passed resolutions expressing their grateful sense of his noble conduct. The Chamber of Commerce met, and voted that £130 be remitted to London for the purpose of procuring a piece of plate with a suitable inscription, to be forwarded to the family of Capt. Ludlow.

By this act of humanity, Capt. Ludlow lost a season for whaling around a coast where he probably would have taken 500 or 600 barrels of oil; but he saved the lives of 105 human beings. Such an instance of genuine self-sacrificing humanity on the part of its sons, contributes more to the honor and glory of a country than would a successful battle in a war of conquest.

A NEW JURY RUDDER FOR VESSELS.

In the month of December, 1850, says the *Baltimore Price Current*, the ship Warren, Capt. Job G. Lanton, sailed from the Clyde for New York. Having experienced a succession of gales before she had gained the distance of eight hundred miles from the coast of Ireland, in which, to use the captain's own words, she lost many spars and sails, and finally her rudder, with all its fastenings, she lay for fifteen days tossed about at the mercy of the elements. Necessity being the mother of invention, Capt. Lanton, whilst thus situated, finally constructed a jury rudder, composed of materials always to be found on board of a sea going vessel, by which he brought his ship safely into port, after a passage of 109 days, without the loss of even any part of her valuable cargo, consisting of dry goods, pig iron, &c. The perfect success with which Capt. L. met, has induced him generously to make known to the world the "specification" of his novel invention, and to this end he recently presented to our city authorities a model, (now in the possession of the Board of Trade,) accompanying an explanatory communication, which concludes as follows:—

"The undersigned is in hopes this model jury rudder will be accepted by the mayor and city authorities, and by them exhibited or disposed of as their good judgment may dictate, it being tendered in good faith, for the benefit of the human family in general."

Capt. Lanton gives the following description of this rudder:—

"The rings on the forward part of the jury rudder, which answered as pintles and braces, were steering sail boom irons. The chain bridles were from topsail sheets, anchor stoppers, &c. The hemp guyes, with sliding thimbles, to the bridle chains, were of 7-inch hauser, which secured the jury rudder to the stern-post of the ship; the small blocks of wood were secured to the hemp guyes to prevent their being

chafed asunder. The pig iron on the forward part was secured there to prevent the aforesaid rudder from being chafed; the seatings of the same were secured by winding iron hoops, taken from water casks, around and over them. The spar on the after part was so placed to stiffen the jury rudder, to which wheel blocks were attached; the wheel ropes leading to a bumkin quarter spar, thence to the wheel. The bridle guyes on the after part of said rudder were for the purpose of assisting the wheel in heavy weather, they leading to a bumkin spar forward of the mizen mast. The pig iron on the lower part was for the purpose of sinking said rudder; the cross planks were about two inches thick. Should there be no planks on board, any part of a bulk head may be taken, parts of bulwarks doubled, or a spar split; in fact, many things can be found on ship-board which will answer as a substitute. For the want of a cable or large hauser to construct a jury rudder, should such be required, a rope of smaller size can be appropriated by double or treble fluting it to the thickness required. The rudder, as per model, is simple in its construction—there being no bolts, spikes, or tree-nails to fasten it, it being secured wholly with seatings, all of which can be accomplished by a common sailor."

STATISTICS OF AGRICULTURE, &c.

STATISTICS OF AGRICULTURE IN THE OHIO VALLEY.

[FROM THE CINCINNATI RAILROAD RECORD.]

No portion of the American Union is embarked more largely in new railroad enterprises than are the States of the Ohio Valley. The agricultural productions, therefore, are of the highest importance to the stockholders on these works. For, in addition to being a very large source of railway traffic, they are the supports of a dense population, which is essential to railway profits. The agricultural returns of the United States census, though very far from being perfect, supply us the elements of correct information on this subject. We furnish the following table as a matter of deep interest to railway undertakers. Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Kentucky, and Tennessee, are the Ohio Valley States; supposing the Ohio parts of Virginia and Pennsylvania to be about balanced by the lake parts of the three former. These five States present the following results in agriculture:—

Cattle.....number	4,488,863	Irish potatoes.....bush.	12,216,298
Swine.....	12,110,419	Butter.....lbs.	77,877,595
Sheep.....	7,918,477	Cheese.....	23,110,966
Wheat.....bush.	33,876,687	Hemp.....tons	18,535
Indian corn.....	280,641,856	Flax.....lbs.	3,766,996
Oats.....	45,119,394	Flax seed.....bush.	381,260
Tobacco.....lbs.	87,990,591		

Although this presents an immense aggregate, yet we can properly estimate it only by comparing these results with the agricultural production of the rest of the Union. Take, then, the whole product of the Union, and compare it with these. Of all of these articles produced in the United States, the part produced in these five States compare thus:—

Of wheat.....	33 per cent	Of hemp.....	50 per cent
Of Indian corn.....	50 "	Of flax.....	50 "
Of oats.....	30 "	Of flax seed.....	60 "
Of tobacco.....	45 "	Of cattle.....	25 "
Of Irish potatoes.....	20 "	Of swine.....	40 "
Of butter.....	25 "	Of sheep.....	40 "
Of cheese.....	22 "		

In fact, these Ohio Valley States produce as much wheat, Indian corn, hemp, flax, and flax seed, as all the rest of the Union! In regard to wheat, the census does not show that fact; but it is well known the crop of 1849, which was returned in the census, was not much over one-half the usual crop in the Ohio Valley. The State returns show that Ohio alone has averaged thirty millions of bushels of wheat per annum for three years. In fact, the State of Ohio is the first in wheat, Indian corn, wool, wine, and flax seed. With such immense agricultural resources, these States

must soon become densely populated, and these furnish the materials for a vast railway traffic.

The five States above enumerated contain about one-fourth the population of the United States; but as they produce nearly one-half the grain, it is obvious they have a surplus far beyond any other section of the country. For example, Ohio has an average of thirty millions of bushels of wheat per annum, of which sixteen millions are a surplus, equal to the entire surplus of the United States.

EXPENSES AND INCOME OF A FARM IN OHIO.

MIAMI FARM, November 8th, 1853.

To FREEMAN HUNT, *Editor Merchants' Magazine*:—

DEAR SIR: If you think it will be interesting to your numerous readers, or conduce to the prosperity of the farming interest, to publish the expenses and receipts of our farm, you are at liberty to use the accompanying account-current as you see proper. This account I took from my wife's day-book. It shows the entire expenditures and cash receipts for 1852 and 1853. I have given you the account in detail, in order to show that both sides have been fairly represented. My wife is entitled to all praise in keeping the account correctly, as every farmer's wife should do, and managing so large a business with so much economy and prudence. That the farm could have been cultivated better by men, we can hardly admit. I have been from home nearly all the time, attending to the stave business, and my wife has necessarily had all the financial and domestic part of the business to oversee. If this should meet with a favorable reception, I will give you a chapter on the practical mode and series of crops which we have uniformly adopted in growing all kinds of produce.

E. WOOLSEY.

MIAMI FARM CREDITOR, BY PRODUCTS OF THE FARM FOR TWO YEARS:—

	Cr.		Cr.
2,900 bushels of corn, by measure, at 44c.....	\$1276 00	Three bush. beans for family use	8 75
Corn fodder for two years, at \$1 per acre.....	100 00	Fourteen fat hogs, \$10 each, on hand	140 00
Pumpkins sold and fed to cows.	75 00	Sixteen shoats, at \$3, on hand..	48 00
Amount of hay sold and fed, 90 tons, \$8 per ton	720 00	Five brood sows, at \$10, on hand	50 00
Value of straw grown.....	50 00	Three brood mares, at \$75, on hand	225 00
1,400 bushels of oats, at 40c....	560 00	One span horses, on hand	150 00
Value of fruit for family use....	50 00	Three good 3-year old colts, \$50 each.....	180 00
Garden products, vegetables sold	60 00	Two good 2-year old colts, \$50..	100 00
115 bushels of potatoes, 40c....	46 00	Two good spring colts.....	50 00
35 bushels wheat, 80c.	28 80	Two sets harness, wagon, 4 plows	74 00
Received for pasture.....	12 00	Scythes, harness, dung-forks, and rakes.....	15 00
Rent and income of fishery, 2 yrs.	100 00	Two cultivators, good as new...	12 00
Cash received for horses.....	210 00	Chickens, eggs, &c, now on hand	30 00
One yoke fat oxen.....	75 00	Six cows, \$20 each, now on hand	120 00
Six fat cattle	96 00	Cash received for bull.....	30 00
Eleven fat calves, \$4 each	44 00	Cash received for cow.....	16 00
Fifteen hundred lbs. pork, \$6....	90 00	Five head young cattle, \$10 each, on hand.....	50 00
Twelve fat shoats, \$7 25 per hd.	87 00	Eleven acres wheat now growing, \$4 per acre.....	44 00
Cash received for butter.....	55 50	One cow sold	21 00
Butter for family use, 2 lbs. per week, 1s.....	26 00		
Ten bush. beans, \$1 25 per bush.	12 50		
Total income			\$5,132 55
Total disbursements			4,087 39
Net gain for two years.....			\$1,045 16

MIAMI FARM, (300 ACRES,) TO EXPENSES FOR TWO YEARS:—

Dr.	Dr.
Interest on \$5,000 purchase money for two years.....	\$600 00
Taxes on farm and stock.....	245 80
Interest on \$245 80, two years..	29 49
Stock of horses, cattle, etc.....	570 00
Interest on \$570, two years.....	68 40
Stock of cattle, as per bills.....	243 00
Interest on \$243, two years.....	29 16
Stock of hogs.....	47 00
Set of harness and saddle.....	40 00
Interest on above, two years...	10 44
Labor of men and teams.....	980 00
Interest on \$980, one year.....	58 80
Seed corn, oats, and potatoes...	36 25
Seed wheat.....	18 00
Interest on above.....	3 25
Family expenses for groceries...
Cloth'g and provisions, \$1 50 per week, 5 in family, two years..	780 00
Interest on \$780, one year.....	46 80
Four plows, two cultivators.....	46 00
Scythes, rakes, forks, end hoes..	15 00
Fuel, axes, shovels, etc.....	30 00
Wear of wagons, harness, plows.	60 00
Blacksmith bill.....	30 00
Add for contingent expenses...	100 00
Total.....	\$4,087 39

THE SUGAR CULTURE OF LOUISIANA IN 1845 AND 1853.

In the report of the Hon. R. J. Walker, the Secretary of the Treasury, of December 3d, 1845, page 691, the following statistics will be found on the subject of the sugar and cotton interest of Louisiana at that time:—

1. That there were in 1845, in the State of Louisiana, 762 sugar plantations—in which the sugar mills were worked by steam power 408, and by horse power 354. Of these using the old process—by open kettles—for granulation, there were 757, and by vacuo, with its expensive apparatus, 5.

2. The slaves of all ages attached to those estates in 1845, were 65,840.

3. The capital invested in sugar estates and works was estimated at that period at \$60,000,000.

4. The crop of sugar in 1844–45 was 204,918 hogsheads of 1,000 lbs. each, or 204,918,000 lbs.

5. That the slaves attached to the cotton plantations in 1845 were 93,220.

6. The crop of cotton for that year was 350,989 bales.

To compare the above with the present, the following details are taken principally from the census returns of 1850 and J. A. Champomier's annual statistical report on the sugar crop of 1853, which he gives with full details and with great correctness:—

1. There were in operation in the year 1853, 1,481 sugar estates—of which there were worked by steam, 943, and by horse power, 538. Using the old process, by open kettles, 1,428; using the vacuo process, 53.

It may be well here to remark that the only check to the general use of the vacuo process, which produces at once a refined article, fit for exportation to any part of the world, without loss of weight, is the present low prices and the uncertainty as to further tariff legislation, whilst the outlay for the apparatus involves a heavy capital—say from \$15,000 to \$60,000, according to the extent of the works.

2. The sugar crop of 1853 was 321,934 hhds.

3. The number of slaves in the sugar district in 1850, was..... 139,966
Deduct number of slaves employed in other pursuits than sugar 10 per cent,
which is an ample allowance..... 13,996

Leaves..... 125,970
as the number of all ages on sugar plantations.

4. The number of slaves in the cotton district in 1850, was..... 85,012
Deduct as above 10 per cent..... 8,501

Leaving..... 76,511
as the number of slaves, of all ages, on cotton estates.

5. The cotton crop of that year, which was unusually short, was 178,737 bales.

The value of plantations in Louisiana, agreeably to the census returns, was \$75,814,398, and the implements of husbandry, machinery, &c., \$11,576,938. The value of slaves is not included in the above, and in the South they form by far the largest portion of any investment for agricultural purposes.

Taking the crop of 1853 as the basis, the following may be considered as the cash value of the sugar estates in Louisiana, viz:—

548 estates, yielding, by Champomier's return, 100 hhds. and under, at \$40,000 each.....		\$21,920,000
347 estates, 100 to 200 hhds., at \$75,000.....		26,025,000
232 do 200 to 300 do 90,000.....		20,884,000
132 do 300 to 400 do 125,000.....		16,500,000
81 do 400 to 500 do 150,000.....		12,150,000
64 do 500 to 600 do 175,000.....		11,200,000
33 do 600 to 700 do 200,000.....		6,600,000
14 do 700 to 800 do 225,000.....		3,150,000
9 do 800 to 900 do 250,000.....		2,250,000
10 do 900 to 1,000 do 275,000.....		2,750,000
6 do 1,000 to 1,100 do 300,000.....		1,800,000
2 do 1,100 to 1,200 do 325,000.....		650,000
3 do 1,200 to 2,000 do 850,000.....		1,050,000

\$126,929,000

Of the 548 estates first mentioned in the above list, many of them are new and will produce considerably more as clearing and improvements progress; and 81 of the number made no crop last year. Very few of the above estates could be purchased at the above valuation; and that the estimate is a very low one is proved by the fact that the cash value of field hands, men and women, have averaged during the last year \$1,350; and, taking the average value of all ages at \$1,000 each, 125,970 slaves in the sugar States would be worth \$125,970,000—which, for the slaves only, is within a fraction of the above estimate, which includes not only the slaves, but also the land, mills, stock, farming utensils, improvements, machinery, &c.

Irrespective, then, of the recent advance in the value of slaves, the capital invested in the culture of the cane in Louisiana may very safely be placed at the above sum of \$126,929,000.

The total crop of sugar in Cuba in 1840, was..... 321,636,000 lbs.

In 1841, was..... 324,876,800 lbs.

The sugar crop of Louisiana in 1840 was 119,947 hhds., or 119,947,000 lbs.; and for 1841, 120,000 hhds., or 120,000,000 lbs.

The crop of Cuba in 1853 has been stated, in round numbers, at 600,000,000 lbs. The crop of Louisiana in 1853, as shown above, was equal to that of Cuba in 1840—say 321,939 hhds., or 321,934,000 lbs., and for 1854 will probably reach 400,000,000 lbs.

The consumption of sugar in the United States for 1840 was estimated at 350,000,000 lbs., and for 1853 is estimated at 745,000,000 lbs.; of which, including what was grown in Louisiana, Texas, and Florida, and the maple sugar, it may be safely estimated at least one-half was of domestic production and the balance of foreign growth.

HIGH PRICE OF SLAVES IN ALABAMA.

The *Montgomery Journal* has some remarks upon the high prices lately paid for land and negroes in Alabama. The *Journal* thinks that planting land purchased at twenty dollars per acre, with negroes costing a thousand dollars per head, will not pay at present prices of cotton. That paper says:—

The high prices which have been freely given in many of the large sales which have taken place during the season, either for cash or credit, have been the subject of general comment. In a recent sale, last Monday, by the auctioneer General Carroll, we noticed the following rates—eighteen negroes of the estate of the late W. McLemore, on eleven months' credit, for the aggregate sum of \$14,195. There were none of these mechanics or house servants, but all common field hands, and mostly children. There were three men, age ranging from 31 to 37; two boys, from 12 to 18 years; three women, from 16 to 37 years; ten children, from two months to seven years; one, age 16 years, brought \$430; another of 7 brought \$760; a boy of 17 brought \$1,374; and another of 12 years brought \$710. A woman of 37 years, with six children, from two to seven years, were sold in family for \$5,000.

These are the highest prices which we have ever noticed paid for negroes of this description; and which, while it shows an abiding confidence in the continued prosperity of the planting interest, develops also a fear that prices are ranging far above their legitimate point, and not justified by the ruling rates for the value of cotton and plantation products.

STATEMENT OF DONATIONS, GRANTS, ETC., OF PUBLIC LANDS IN THE SEVERAL STATES AND TERRITORIES, UP TO THE 30TH JUNE, 1853.

States and Territories.	Donations and grants for schools, universities, etc.	Grants for deaf and dumb asylums.	Grants for internal improvements.	Grants for individuals and companies.	Grants for government and public buildings.	Grants for military services.	Granted to States.	Railroad grants.	Total.
Ohio.....	727,528	1,243,001.77	82,141.24	1,771,268.96	\$25,640.71	3,799,575.68
Indiana.....	673,357	1,609,861.61	843.44	2,560	1,200,666.61	1,286,827.44	4,774,106.10
Illinois.....	1,001,795	500,000	984.64	2,560	8,745,980.68	1,833,412.94	2,595,058	14,679,706.26
Missouri.....	1,232,179	500,000	2,560	2,131,968.20	2,178,716.43	2,442,240	8,477,668.63
Alabama.....	925,814	21,949.46	500,000	1,981.53	1,620	740,084.95	\$2,595.51	230,400	2,424,445.45
Mississippi.....	860,624	500,000	15,965.31	1,980	155,388.21	1,824,812.11	549,120	3,907,184.63
Louisiana.....	882,124	500,000	8,412.98	507,470.80	9,771,275.51	11,619,282.79
Michigan.....	1,113,477	1,250,000	4,080	13,200	946,803.59	6,788,124.72	10,115,685.31
Arkansas.....	932,540	2,097.48	500,000	139,366.25	10,600	1,627,438.05	8,690,016.75	2,189,200	14,091,233.48
Florida.....	954,583	20,924.22	500,000	52,114	6,240	272,919.81	2,085,605.49	3,871,986.52
Iowa.....	951,224	+1,385,078.23	18,228.86	3,840	4,284,173.30	\$71,958.05	6,714,500.43
Wisconsin.....	1,004,728	929,786	6,706.83	6,400	2,860,937.17	11,239,269.00	5,666,775.99
California.....	6,765,404	500,000	97,860.00	No est. or rept.	7,265,404.00
Minnesota Territory	5,089,244	\$340,000	5,526,604.00
Oregon.....	12,186,987	12,186,987.00
New Mexico.....	7,493,120	7,493,120.00
Utah.....	6,681,707	6,681,707.00
Northwest.....
Nebraska.....
Indian.....
Totals.....	49,416,435	\$44,971.11	10,757,677.50	279,792.07	50,860	24,841,979.83	35,798,254.66	8,006,013	129,195,983.27

* Not finally closed.
 † Includes the estimated quantity of 560,000 acres of the Des Moines river grant, situated in this State, between the Racoon Fork and source of that river.
 ‡ Is the estimated quantity of 240,000 acres of the Des Moines river grant, situated in this Territory as above.
 § Reported by State authorities.
 || Estimated.

RAILROAD, CANAL, AND STEAMBOAT STATISTICS.

STEAMBOATS AT THE PORT OF ST. LOUIS IN 1853.

LIST OF STEAMBOATS ENGAGED DURING THE YEAR 1853 AT THE PORT OF ST. LOUIS,
ALPHABETICALLY ARRANGED.

Audubon	tons. 191	Dresden	tons. 548	Hamburg	tons. 207
Aleonia	286	Dutchess	329	Henry Chouteau	623
Alliquippa	227	Die Vernon	446	Hermann	196
Arctic	351	D. A. Given	184	Henrietta	179
Altoona	167	Delaware	561	Honduras	295
Altona	170	Dan. Hillman	145	Highland Mary No. 1..	158
Aleck Scott	710	Dubuque	181	Highland Mary No. 2..	160
Admiral	244	Dr. Franklin No. 2 ..	190	Hibernia	309
Asia	199	Dr. Franklin No. 1 ..	149	Herald	275
Atlantic	667	Editor	247	H. D. Bacon	576
Australia	289	Envoy	178	Harry Hill	332
Alton	382	Emma Dean	200	Iowa	454
Amazonia	257	Elephant	425	Ione	54
Amaranth	483	Elvira	222	Ironton	140
Arabia	222	E. Howard	390	Indiana	370
Belle Gould	207	El Paso	260	Isabel	327
Ben Cousin	161	Equinox	297	Illinois	682
Bunker Hill	398	Empire State	812	Joan of Arc	148
Ben Bolt	460	Excelsior	172	John L. Avery	333
Bulletin	698	Excel	79	John Simonds	1,025
Bay State	210	Eliza	347	James Laughlin	188
Ben Campbell	213	Farmer	194	J. W. Stockdale	352
Brunette	229	Fanny Fern	182	J. S. Chenoweth	310
Bluff City	396	Fayaway	102	Jeannie Deans	441
Ben Lee	122	Floating Palace	230	Julia Dean	180
Belle Quigley	132	Forest Rose	205	J. D. Early	247
Beauty	169	F. X. Aubrey	247	James McFadden	421
Banner State	254	Fanny Smith	285	J. Morrisett	391
Ben West	241	Flag	235	John J. Strader	239
Badger State	127	Federal Arch	196	John Simpson	228
Bon Accord	147	Fashion	289	J. McKee	141
Cataract	283	Fanny Sparhawk	250	Jenny Lind	178
Clara	248	Fort Henry	157	James Millingar	286
Caleb Cope	80	Granite State	288	Josiah Lawrence	593
Caroline	105	Grand Prairie	236	J. M. Olendenin	277
Orescent	548	Gen. Pike	286	James Robb	583
Cabinet	189	Golden State	298	James Lyon	181
Charles Belcher	823	Grand Turk	689	J. B. Gordon	48
Columbus	542	Granite State	275	James Nelson	100
Col. Dickinson	220	Georgia	326	James Park	258
Cornelia	265	G. W. Sparhawk	248	Kate Swinney	380
Caledonia	338	Globe No. 1	272	Kingston	143
Clipper No. 2	360	Goesamer	142	Kansas	276
Cincinnati	382	Georgetown	183	Kate Kearney	305
Carondelet	60	Grand Tower	570	Kentucky	139
Clarion	73	Golden Era	247	Key Stone	306
Cumberland Valley ..	198	George Collier	540	Lady Pike	239
C. Hays	240	Greek Slave	144	Lady Franklin	150
Castle Garden	161	Garden City	410	L. F. Linn	162
Cora No. 2	550	General Gaines	159	Lucy McConnell	58
Cuba	157	H. T. Yeatman	165	Liah Tuna	646
Carrier	97	Huntville	106	Lightfoot	155
D. S. Stacy	237	Hindoo	200	L. M. Kennett	577

Lunette.....tons.	176	Northerner.....tons.	399	Silas Wright....tons.	248
Lexington.....	213	Ohio.....	348	Saranac No. 2.....	295
Louisa.....	180	Pacific.....	573	Saxon.....	480
Leonard.....	393	Pike.....	245	St. Ange.....	254
Lueila.....	122	Paul Anderson.....	310	Sallie West.....	286
Lemartine.....	175	Patrick Henry.....	298	Submarine.....	160
Lucy Robinson.....	240	Prairie City.....	198	Salem.....	147
Moro Castle.....	298	Polar Star.....	310	Senator.....	121
Martha No. 2.....	172	Persia.....	255	Stella Blanche.....	203
Martha Jewett.....	408	Prairie State.....	298	Summit.....	128
Mattie Wayne.....	300	Planter.....	200	Statesman.....	388
Minnesota.....	149	Pawnee.....	477	Twin City.....	197
Manchester.....	298	Quaker City.....	213	Tropic.....	242
Montauk.....	237	Regulator.....	156	Tishimingo.....	188
Michigan.....	432	R. H. Lee.....	158	Timour.....	273
Midas.....	...	Republic.....	107	Tobacco Plant.....	207
Memphis.....	196	N. M. Patton.....	185	Telegraph No. 2.....	375
Messenger.....	389	Robert Campbell.....	269	Time and Tide.....	161
Malta.....	125	Royal Arch.....	213	Tiber.....	184
Movastar.....	140	Return.....	219	U. S. Mail.....	196
Mustang.....	129	Reindeer.....	407	Union.....	150
Mary C.....	157	Shenandoah.....	179	Uncle Sam.....	741
Newton Wagoner.....	106	Sonora.....	263	Vienna.....	170
Niagara.....	203	Sam Cloon.....	213	Wenona.....	247
New York.....	287	St. Francis.....	69	Walk in the Water ..	100
N. L. Milburn.....	76	Sam. Snowdon.....	174	Washington City....	280
New Lucy.....	417	St. Paul.....	226	W. B. Clifton.....	340
North America.....	270	St. Croix.....	159	Whirlwind.....	226
Nile.....	30	St. Clair.....	321	Wyoming.....	198
Navigator.....	154	Susquehanna.....	290	Westerner.....	462
N. W. Thomas.....	409	St. Nicholas.....	667	Wisconsin.....	140
Ne Plus Ultra.....	248	St. Louis.....	938	Yorktown.....	143
Nominee.....	213	Southerner.....	893	Yuba.....	348
North River.....	242	Swamp Fox.....	281	York State.....	247
New St. Paul.....	226	Sangamon.....	85	Young America.....	127
N. W. Graham.....	286	Sam. Gaty.....	294		

STEAMBOAT ARRIVALS AND TONNAGE, FROM DECEMBER 25, 1852, TO DECEMBER 28, 1853.
FURNISHED BY JOHN DURACK, HARBOR MASTER.

	Arrivals.	Tons.		Arrivals.	Tons.
January.....	128	34,116	July.....	303	78,482
February.....	164	37,965	August.....	245	60,910
March.....	292	75,006	September.....	237	66,468
April.....	458	116,781	October.....	263	63,731
May.....	358	96,265	November.....	311	72,236
June.....	292	79,202	December, up to 28th	261	64,235
Total.....				3,307	835,397

INCREASE OF BUSINESS ON THE LITTLE MIAMI RAILROAD.

The result of the business of 1852-3 on this railroad was as follows:—

	1852.	1853.
Passengers.....	\$270,136	\$350,045
Freights, etc.....	256,609	316,611
Totals.....	526,741	666,656
Increase in 1853.....		139,916
Increase.....		27 per cent.
The increase from passengers.....		30 per cent.
The increase from freight.....		23 per cent.

The receipts of this road have increased uniformly from the completion of the work. The gross receipts are now about one-fourth the capital. At this rate, the stockholders, if they choose, might easily reimburse their whole stock. The company have divided regular 10 per cent dividends, using the residue of their proceeds for the improvement of the road. The stock in market has averaged about 120, at which rate the purchaser would receive 8 per cent dividend, and a continual addition to the capital. The number of passengers carried during the year was 291,375, which is 3,500 per mile.

LENGTH AND COST OF RAILWAYS IN EUROPE AND AMERICA.

E. R. STABLES, civil engineer, of Circleville, Ohio, publishes in the *Railroad Record* of Cincinnati, a table of cost, length, working expenses, etc., for several railroads in Europe and America. It will be perceived that the table is not quite complete in itself, inasmuch as the German railways are under government control, and they only report by the *whole*; still, undoubtedly they are correct. In the list of American railways, Mr. STABLES was unable to obtain some of the items, as will be seen by the table.

TABLE OF COST, LENGTH, WORKING EXPENSES, ETC., FOR SEVERAL RAILWAYS IN EUROPE AND AMERICA.

BRITISH.						
	(1.)	(2.)	(3.)	(4.)	(5.)	(6.)
Birmingham & Gloucester.....	54	6,646,500	783,000	95	5½	140
Dundee & Newtyle.....	12½	850,000	190,000	71	3½	52
Edinburg & Glasgow.....	37	6,000,000	600,000	85	4 1-5	126
Grand Junction.....	83½	9,607,500	1,072,500	91	4½	35
Great Western.....	117½	22,540,800	2,300,000	92	5½	49½
Lancaster & Preston.....	20½	2,200,000	320,000	78	6½	24
Liverpool & Manchester.....	30½	4,195,900	2,483,400	72	4½	55
London & Birmingham.....	113	28,972,400	1,949,700	98	3	36
Midland Counties.....	57½	8,500,000	1,065,000	94	6	40
New Castle & Carlisle.....	61½	4,750,000	868,000	65	4½	56
North Union.....	25	3,050,000	500,000	96	4½	28
North Western.....	47	4,898,000	905,300	97	5	52½
GERMAN.						
Antwerp.....	23½	\$1,836,300	4,119,600	91c.	4½c.	48
Brabant.....	70½	5,275,400				
East Flanders.....	55½	2,372,400				
West Flanders.....	52	2,557,400				
Hainault.....	76½	5,288,400				
Liege.....	42½	7,849,300				
Limborough.....	12½	692,000				
Namur.....	15½	1,146,300				
AMERICAN.						
Albany & Schenectady, N. Y....	17	1,698,300	74	3	..
Hudson River.....	75	5,003,700	307,800	79	3	20
New York & Erie.....	445	23,750,000	1,700,000	63	2	65
Syracuse and Utica.....	53	2,363,100	343,300	68	2 8-10	..
Georgia Central, Ga.....	191	3,378,100	86	3	..
Worcester, Mass.....	69	4,845,900	85	2½	..
Western.....	155	9,953,700	77	2½	..
Connecticut River.....	52	1,801,900	82	3	..
Boston & Maine.....	83	4,092,900	64	2½	..
Vermont & Massachusetts.....	77	3,451,600	75	2 9-10	..
Fall River.....	42	1,050,000	91	2½	..
Cincinnati, Hamilton & Dayton, O	60	2,600,000	309,178	40	2½	20
Little Miami.....	84	2,650,000	465,800	77	2 4-10	40

(1) Shows the length in miles. (2) Total cost including equipment. (3) Equipment including work shops. (4) Working expenses per mile per train. (5) 1st class passengers per mile. (6) Steepest grades, feet per mile.

EARNINGS OF WESTERN AND EASTERN RAILROADS.

Mr. MANSFIELD, the clever editor of the Cincinnati *Railroad Record*, in a late number of that valuable journal, institutes a comparison of the earnings of the railroads of the East and West, which shows pretty satisfactorily that the latter are preferable for investment. The facts and figures which the *Record* adduces are the length, cost and earnings of some twenty of our railroads, Eastern and Western, selected at hazard. The earnings are for the months of October, in 1852 and 1853. The roads selected are as follows:—

Names of Roads.	EASTERN.				
	Length miles.	Cost of construction.	Earnings Oct. '52.	Earnings Oct. '53.	Increase.
New York Central.....	504	\$24,970,424	\$416,541	\$555,945	\$139,404
New York and Erie	464	81,301,806	376,838	552,995	176,157
Hudson River	144	10,527,654	104,309	153,258	48,949
Harlem	130	6,102,935	70,463	90,008	19,545
Norwich and Worcester	45	1,321,944	24,886	31,867	6,891
New York and New Haven	61	4,978,487	64,524	93,252	28,728
Hartford and New Haven	62	3,472,000	49,503	74,613	25,110
Stonington, Ct.	65	1,900,000	19,995	32,275	12,280
Baltimore and Ohio	379	21,192,307	198,000	290,168	92,168
Pennsylvania Central	250	13,600,000	144,094	245,058	100,964

Totals, Eastern Roads.....	2,104	119,367,557	1,469,153	2,119,439	650,286
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Names of Roads.	WESTERN.				
	Length miles.	Cost of construction.	Earnings Oct. '52.	Earnings Oct. '53.	Increase.
Michigan South'n & North'n Indiana	315	6,430,246	134,747	220,804	86,057
Michigan Central.....	282	8,614,193	164,183	200,163	45,980
Ohio & Pennsylvania (new).....	187	5,200,700	41,741	84,039	42,298
Mad River & Lake Erie.....	167	1,860,500	54,190	75,048	20,858
Cincinnati, Hamilton, & Dayton ...	60	2,600,000	30,001	38,085	8,084
Cleveland & Pittsburgh	100	2,963,750	37,313	44,323	7,010
Cleveland, Columbus, & Cincinnati.	135	3,655,000	95,991	113,971	17,980
Little Miami.....	84	2,650,000	85,202	90,070	4,868
Galena & Chicago Union (new)....	92	2,432,361	58,712	99,347	40,635
Lexington & Frankfort.....	29	591,313	7,008	10,604	3,596

Totals, Western Roads.....	1,451	36,998,063	709,088	976,454	267,366
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Totals of Eastern & Western Roads.	3,555	156,365,620	2,178,241	3,095,893	917,652
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From this table the *Record* deduces the following elements, viz.:—

The 20 roads named cost an average of \$43,985 per mile.

The 10 Eastern roads cost an average of \$56,733 per mile.

The 10 Western roads cost an average of \$25,498 per mile.

The 10 Eastern roads earned in October, 1852, 1.02 per cent of their cost, or at the rate of 12.24 per cent per annum.

While in 1853, in the same month, these same roads earned 1.08 per cent of their cost, or 12.96 per cent per annum.

The 10 Western roads earned in October, 1852, 1.77 per cent of their cost, or at the rate of 21.24 per cent per annum; and in 1853, in the same month, their receipts were 2.37 per cent of their cost, or 28.44 per cent per annum.

The increase upon the 10 Eastern roads has been at the rate of $\frac{1}{5}$ of 1 per cent for the month, or 9 per cent per annum; while upon the 10 Western roads, the increase of the month has been at the rate of 7.20 per cent, or 86.40 per cent per annum; from which we gather, that while the receipts upon the Eastern roads have increased at the rate of about 10 per cent for the last year, those upon our Western roads have increased at the rate of nearly 100 per cent.

Great as this increase may seem, we are satisfied that it is only a commencement of the immense business to be done by means of railroads; and if we are questioned as to where this business is to be found, whence it is to come, we reply, the railroads will create it for themselves. We have not space at this time to elaborate our views and ideas, and so refer our readers to the several articles upon this branch of the sub-

ject, which have already appeared in our columns from the pen of our senior, while we proceed with our subject of the Western railroads as an investment.

We have now shown the gross earnings of Western roads for the year 1852 to have been at the rate of 21.24 per cent of their cost. If from this we deduct running expenses, &c., at the rate of 50 per cent, a large allowance under any circumstances, we have the net annual earnings at the rate of 10.62 per cent, and this while several of the roads were incomplete; but in 1853 the rate was 28.44 per cent gross, or 14.22 per cent net; and all this while the railroad system is yet in its infancy. Had we been able to have collected the earnings of these same roads for the month of December, instead of October, the result would have been much more surprising.

GEORGIA CENTRAL RAILROAD AND BANKING COMPANY.

The recent report of the Board of Directors of the above company shows the following exhibit of the business and financial condition of their work for the year ending November 30, 1853.

The entire cash payments on account of earnings of bank and road for the year, have been as follows:—

From road.. \$910,906 82 | From bank.. \$75,167 02 | Total.. ... \$986,073 84

And the entire cash payments thereout have been as follows:—

Current railroad expenditures	\$407,733 64	
Current bank expenses	13,805 24	
For interest	28,927 33	
For dividends (rate 8 per cent) ..	279,869 50	
		\$730,335 71

Leaving a surplus of		255,738 13
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And this surplus has been disposed of as follows:—

Carried to cost of railroad	\$200,000 30	
Carried to Reserved Fund	55,738 13	
		\$255,738 13
The amount at credit of Reserved Fund this day is		322,398 95
There has been paid into bank from earnings of the road to 30th November, 1853, the sum of		850,339 83
Leaving uncollected		66,742 51

Total		\$917,082 34
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This company has had charge of the Eatonton Railroad since the first day of April, 1853, at an annual rent of \$14,000. They have also had charge of the Milledgeville and Gordon Railroad since 1st April, 1853, at a like annual rent of \$14,000. No payment has yet been made on account of the hire of these roads.

LUBRICATORS FOR RAIL CAR AXLES.

With regard to the heating of axles, Sir F. Head, in a report upon the Paris and Lyons line, observes:—

On all our railways in England the respective companies, as well as the public very constantly suffer expensive and troublesome delays from what are professionally called "hot axles," which sufficiently proves that the nice-looking yellow mixture which at almost every stoppage endeavors to prevent the evil is inadequate for the object for which it has been concocted. Now, the French government, invoking the aid of chemistry, have scientifically ordained on the Paris and Lyons Railroad the use of three descriptions of anti-attractive ointment—namely, one for hot, one for frosty, and one for wet weather. I was assured by the engineer that the result has been most successful; and, as everybody who travels by rail in England would deprecate the idea of a human being using one sort of dress for every description of weather, so it sounds only reasonable that railway axles should not be ignorantly restricted to one single medicine, to be "taken when shaken," as a cure for the innumerable ills to which, under various temperatures, they are exposed.

GREAT WESTERN RAILROAD TO CANADA.

The Great Western Railway, from the Falls to Windsor, opposite Detroit, is now open through its entire length, from Niagara Falls to Detroit. It is practically a continuation of the New York Central Railroad to Detroit, and is principally owned by capitalists of New York State. The distances are as follow:—

Detroit to Niagara Falls	miles.	228
Niagara Falls to Rochester		76
Rochester to Albany		228
		<hr/>
Distance from Detroit to Albany		532
Albany to New York		144
		<hr/>
Detroit to New York		676
Albany to Boston		200
		<hr/>
Detroit to Boston		739

TIME TABLES—FROM NEW YORK TO DETROIT.

New York to Albany	hours.	4.15
Albany to Rochester		8.44
Rochester to Niagara Falls		3.00
		<hr/>
New York to Niagara Falls		15.59
Niagara Falls to Detroit		8.00
		<hr/>
New York to Detroit		23.59

FROM BOSTON TO DETROIT.

Boston to Albany		10.30
Albany to Detroit		19.44
		<hr/>
Boston to Detroit		30.14

The time from New York to Chicago will be as follows:—

New York to Detroit	hours.	23.59
Detroit to Chicago		11.00
		<hr/>
New York to Chicago		34.59

THE SAFEST SEAT IN THE CARS.

A great deal has been said and written about the safest place in a railway car. Some assert that the nearer the locomotive the better; and some the most distant. Of course there is no position that is absolutely safe. Whirling along at 40 and 50 miles an hour, is in itself dangerous, rendering a seat in a depot hardly safe. An exchange has the following remarks on the subject:—

The frequency of collisions on railroads has raised the question, Which is the place of greatest security in a railroad train? The *Railroad Journal* gives the following as an answer: It is very well known that the car nearest the engine is exposed to the least dust, and the rear car of a train is generally safer than the front car. The safest is probably the last car but one, in a train of more than two cars—that is, there are fewer chances of accidents to this than any other.

If it is a way train at moderate speed, or any train standing still, a collision is possible from another train in the rear; in which case the last car receives the first shock. Again, the engine and the front cars of a train will often go over a broken rail, or a cow, or stone, without derailment, while the last car, having nothing to draw it into the line of the train, is free to leave the track. Next to the forward car, the rear car is probably the most unsafe in the train. The safest seat is probably near the center of the last car but one, and in a very long train, in the centers of the last two or three cars next to the last.

RECEIPTS AND EXPENSES OF THE PENNSYLVANIA RAILROAD.

The following is a comparative statement of receipts and expenditures of the Pennsylvania Railroad for the years 1852 and 1853:—

	1852.	1853.		1852.	1853.
Jan.	\$87,220 54	\$288,536 26	July.	\$122,127 89	\$157,244 90
Feb.	155,598 64	284,461 49	Aug.	153,769 61	236,493 19
March	244,457 53	310,955 82	Sept.	174,315 69	260,036 76
April	266,411 21	270,126 62	Oct.	150,045 69	245,058 30
May	168,634 05	195,072 90	Nov.	143,100 94	246,145 23
June.	126,024 30	156,973 59	Dec.	217,121 72	250,000 00
Total				\$1,943,827 81	\$2,846,110 16
Receipts for 1853					\$2,846,110 16
Expenses					1,700,000 00
Receipts for 1852					1,943,827 81
Expenses					1,829,334 85

The net profits in 1852 amounted to \$614,442, and in 1853 to \$1,146,110, showing a large increase for 1853.

COLUMBUS AND XENIA RAILROAD.

The following statement will show the operations of this road for 1853:—

Capital stock to provide a dividend		\$1,291,000
Gross earnings, Dec. 1, 1852, to Nov. 30, 1853	\$317,000	
Forty per cent expenses	126,800	
Total	190,200	
Ten per cent depreciation fund	31,700	158,500
Dividend and interest in June	73,300	
Dividend in December	64,500	137,800
Leaving surplus for 1853		\$20,700
The surplus in 1852		17,600
Surplus, after providing for depreciation of the road. . .		\$38,300

The debt of the road is less than \$500,000.

Two semi-annual dividends of 5 per cent each have been paid.

CLEMENS'S NEW CAR VENTILATOR.

A patent has recently been issued to S. A. Clemens, of Springfield, Mass., as we learn from the *Republican* of that city, for an invention of greater interest to the traveling public, probably, than any other that could be named. It is a ventilator for railroad cars. It consists of a simple and cheap contrivance for admitting air to the interior of a car, through a wet sponge or cloth, which is so placed in contact with water, at its ends, as to be kept constantly moist by capillary attraction. The cloth arrests the cinders, dust, and smoke, and the air enters, freshened by its passage through the cloth. If the side-windows are kept closed, *all* the dust is excluded, and a sufficient current is obtained to keep the air in the car constantly fresh. Mr. Gray, the superintendent of the Western Railroad, a man whose practical good judgment is not questioned in such matters, and who has tried the ventilators on his road, expresses the highest satisfaction with it. Mr. Russell, the conductor on whose trains the ventilator has been used, is equally decided in his approbation. We have every reason to believe that the grand desideratum in connection with railroad travel is simply and cheaply realized in this admirable invention. Those who know Mr. Clemens are aware that in mechanical ingenuity and thorough scientific accomplishments, he has few, if any equals among the inventors of New England.

JOURNAL OF MINING AND MANUFACTURES.

INDUSTRIAL AND EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITIES OF WOMEN.

We publish the subjoined circular in compliance with the request of a valued friend, and hope the information solicited will be obtained, as it cannot but prove useful to all who take an interest in the elevation of the female character.

At the Cleveland Woman's Rights Convention, the undersigned were appointed a committee to obtain the preparation of two essays, one on the Educational Opportunities of American Women, and one on their Business Opportunities.

Even a superficial discharge of this duty must involve a wider investigation of facts than is possible for any one person. Agents have therefore been already engaged in several of the States to make inquiries. It is impossible, however, to do the whole work even in this manner; and the committee therefore respectfully ask the voluntary co-operation of all who are interested in elevating the position of Woman.

The following are the points on which information is especially solicited:—

1. EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITIES OF AMERICAN WOMEN.

- (a.) State legislation respecting Female Education.
- (b.) Statistics and condition of Primary and Grammar Schools to which Females are admitted, in the several States.
- (c.) Statistics and condition of High and Normal Schools.
- (d.) Statistics and condition of Academies and Private Schools.
- (e.) Statistics and condition of Collegiate and Professional Institutions.

2. BUSINESS OPPORTUNITIES OF AMERICAN WOMEN.

- (a.) Statistics of actual employment of Women in various parts of the Union.

- 1. Mechanical,
- 2. Agricultural,
- 3. Mercantile,
- 4. Professional

- (b.) Wages paid to them as compared with those of Men.
- (c.) Employments which they might fill but do not, and impediments in the way.

It is important that the information given should in all cases be as systematic and definite possible. Facts are what we now aim at—not arguments, but the preliminary basis for argument. Let each person who reads this, ascertain what is within his or her reach, and communicate it within six months, if possible. For any very extensive or valuable communications, payment may in some cases be made. Any pamphlets, newspapers, or circulars, bearing upon the above subject, will also be gladly received. Communications may be addressed (post paid, if possible,) to Rev. T. W. HIGGINSON, Worcester, Massachusetts.

(Signed)

LUCRETIA MOTT, WENDELL PHILLIPS, ERNESTINE L. ROSE, LUCY STONE, T. W. HIGGINSON.
January 15, 1854.

AMERICAN COTTON MANUFACTURES IN COMPETITION WITH THOSE OF GREAT BRITAIN.

[FROM THE LONDON MERCANTILE GAZETTE.]

The recent meeting of the Manchester Chamber of Commerce deserves the serious consideration of the people of England. We long since warned the country of the danger of depending on our cotton manufactures as a branch of trade of which the nation could never be deprived. There cannot be a doubt that our cotton trade has been, and indeed, still is, a source of great wealth to the country; that it has afforded employment to many thousands of the people, and that through its means a great number of the working classes have been supported in ease and comfort. But all these advantages have resulted from England having a monopoly of the trade; and, when that monopoly ceases, through the competition of other countries which have been preparing for it, the trade can no longer continue that infallible national resource which it is supposed to be.

When we formerly wrote on this subject, we said that the United States of America was the country from which the greatest competition was apprehended; we stated, what was known to be the fact, that even then America undersold England in all the neutral markets, in the coarser fabrics; and, knowing the energy of the American people, we naturally concluded that they would not stop at that point, but that those who could manufacture coarse cloths would very soon learn to manufacture fine cloths also. This opinion is, in a great degree, borne out by the statement of Mr. James Aspinall Turner, at the meeting of the Manchester Chamber of Commerce, on Monday last. That gentleman observed "that there was a close contest between the masters of this country and those of America, and of Germany, France, and Switzerland, and many other countries, for the possession of the market;" and he added, that he had samples laid before him last week, showing that the Americans were progressing with rapid strides in the cotton manufactures, and that they were making most beautiful cloth, not only of the coarser description, but of fine fabric; and that there was nothing to prevent them passing us, except that labor was a little dearer than here.

Of the competition of Germany, France, and Switzerland, we think we have not much to fear. In some of those countries, no doubt, they equal if they do not excel us in skill, but they labor under the same disadvantages as we do, in having to import the raw material; hence the capital of England, with her matured proficiency, may afford a sufficient defense against these competitors. With America it is very different; the Americans have the raw material on the spot—England has to import every pound of it, either from the United States, from India, Brazil, Egypt, or some other distant country. But we are told that labor is a little dearer in America than in England. We imagine, however, it cannot long continue so; for some years past the United States have been enormously increasing their population from these islands and from Germany, and the process is still going on. America, as compared to England, is an untaxed country; provisions of all kinds are abundant, and the circumstance of our importing them, to supply the wants of England, shows that the markets there are cheaper than they are here. Hence the price of labor cannot long continue high. Besides, there is in this country a general demand for higher wages; and, as regards the manufactures especially, there can be no doubt they are committing a great error. They are at present engaged in a very close and a very doubtful competition with the United States, and other foreign countries, and a very little may turn the balance against England. But, besides America, the chairman of the meeting said: "He had been suffering a diminution of orders from the continent, and he had been told the reason was, that continental manufactures were progressing to such an extent, that they would be able very soon to take several branches of his business from him, and were already producing several articles he had been accustomed to furnish, at a cheaper rate than he could." If, in the face of these circumstances, the operatives persist in their demand for higher wages, they must inevitably hasten a catastrophe which it is impossible not to see is already before the country—a serious falling off in the exportation of cotton goods, through the competition depriving England of the monopoly of which it has so long had the undisputed enjoyment.

The chairman told the meeting that he had himself, and many other gentlemen besides, received tempting offers to remove his capital and industry out of this country, and he had no doubt that he could employ his money to more advantage to himself abroad. In confirmation of which it was stated that two firms—the names of which were given—were now building factories on the Rhine, instead of in Lancashire, which was their first intention. In this decision they have, of course, been in some degree influenced by the war now waging against capital on the part of the operatives in Lancashire. But, perhaps, it is not the only motive. If the price of operative labor be higher in America than it is in England, it is cheaper on the continent; house rent is also cheaper; and the mill owners have at last found out that they are burdened with the income tax. This tax alone must give a decided advantage to American and continental manufactures over English. Hence heavy taxation ought not to be disregarded as one of the causes which must aid the competition to which the manufacturers of England are exposed. But with prudence, and a better sense of their real interests, on the part of the operatives, England may enjoy for many years to come a prosperous cotton trade. We would, however, have all parties, and especially our statesmen and legislators, abandon the chimerical thought, that the country can, without fear of rivalry or competition, perpetuate a monopoly in the trade.

EARLY MANUFACTURES OF NEW ENGLAND.

Firearms were manufactured in large quantities in colonial times. Hon. Hugh Orr, of Bridgewater, about 1748, made 500 stand of arms for the province of Massachusetts Bay, which were deposited in Castle William; nearly all, however, were carried off by the British when they evacuated the town of Boston. Mr. Orr was a pioneer in many articles of manufacture in the old colony, particularly of iron. He erected the first triphammer known in this part of the country. By his exertions and experiments, scythes and axes were first introduced, and for several years he was the only edge-tool maker in New England.

Powder was an article of much anxiety in regard to its manufacture. We find even as early as 1639, a record that Edward Rawson, who represented Newbury in the General Court that year, was granted by the colony "500 acres at Pecoit, so as hee go on with the business of Powder if the salt Peter come." But he did not succeed, as in 1748 he is granted 500 acres to indemnify for his losses. "In 1643, the General Court made an order about preparing houses for saltpetre, that there might be powder made in the colony, but as yet it has not gone on."

In 1775 Gov. Richard Penn, who was in England charged with a petition for redress from the Continental Congress, stated "that the Pennsylvanians perfectly understood the making of gunpowder, and also the manufacture of small arms." Probably the first powder mill erected in this part of the country was at Andover. It was built by Hon. Samuel Phillips, Junior, in 1776, and some remains of it are still to be seen. The colony supplied him with saltpetre and sulphur, and he was to receive eight pence per pound for manufacturing.

The resolve under which the contract was made is dated June 8, 1776, and requires him to give bonds for the faithful performance of the contract; also, he was to cause to be published all the discoveries he might make relative to the construction of the mill and the manufacturing of powder. During the year 1776, that mill turned out 80,000 pounds of powder. In 1778 the mill was blown up, and after that time the manufacture was given up, and that of paper substituted by the same gentleman. Subsequently, about 1794, a smaller powder mill was erected, which was blown or burned down in 1796. This ended the manufacture in Andover.

Although but little had been done in manufacturing woolen and cotton articles previous to the Revolution, yet each family in the country supplied in a great measure their own wants. A woolen factory was erected at Ipswich, in 1792, and some blankets made, but being a losing business it was continued only a few years, and a cotton factory exhibited similar results.

The above is from the *Boston Transcript*, and relates mostly to firearms and powder. By the report of the Commissioner of patents for 1852, we learn that the first cold-cut nail in the world was made in America. This was done in 1777 by Jeremiah Wilkison, of Cumberland, R. I., who is still living at a very advanced age. During the Revolution he followed the business of making cards by hand, and finding great difficulty in obtaining a supply of English tacks to nail them on, he tried the experiment of cutting some with a pair of large shears, from the plate of an old chest lock, then heading them in a smith's vice. Finding this plan to succeed very well for his wants, he afterwards made all the tacks he wanted from sheets of iron. Subsequently he made larger nails, such as those used for fastening laths and shingles. This veteran inventor also made pins and darning needles of wire drawn by himself. He is a Quaker, and followed the peaceable trade of fighting iron, while others of his countrymen were fighting their foes. He, however, has not labored in vain for his country, as he laid the foundation for vast improvements in cutting nails by machinery, which is exclusively an American invention.

ZINC APPLIED TO SHIP-BUILDING.

A sloop built of zinc, with iron framing and wooden decks, called the "Comte Edhon," has been constructed at Nantes, France, by Mr. Guilbert, and named after one of the directors of the Vieille Montagne Company. She is elegant in form, draws but little water, and is considered in every respect a first-rate vessel. The command was given to Captain Jouanno, of Lorient, and her first voyage was to Rio Janeiro, from which place she has just returned. The captain reports that the experiment has been highly satisfactory; she has proved an excellent sea-boat in repeated gales, which she had to encounter; and one fact is stated of much importance—that her compasses had never been in the slightest degree affected, a circumstance which often happens on iron ships, by which serious casualties have occurred.

MINERAL RESOURCES OF VERMONT.

SOAP STONE.

A correspondent of the *Journal of Commerce*, who seems to be well informed, writes that there is a fine quarry of this singular and useful material at Grafton, in the vicinity of Bellows Falls. The mill where it is prepared for use and fitted for a finishing establishment in Boston, is at Cambridgeport, a small village near the line of Grafton. This quarry has been long known, as is seen from antiquated chimney pieces in the neighborhood, but was formerly worked upon a small scale, in part from the want of modern improvements in machinery, but chiefly from the expense of transportation to the distant market. That obstacle is now removed by the railroads. The free stone, as it is here called, has the "unctuous feel" of the mineralogist, and the cognomen *soap* better describes the striking resemblance of touch to that article, although the ease with which the material is cut and fitted for use makes the word *free* a proper and significant appellation. The spectator at first is both amused and surprised to see huge blocks of granite-looking stone cut into slabs by a saw such as he has seen in use only for wood. The teeth are not so sharp at the point, but with this exception, one might think the workmen had borrowed from a saw-mill the well-known and essential instrument for transforming logs into lumber. The soap stone contains no substance harder than itself, and it cuts under the common saw easier and faster than hard wood of the same dimensions. This I proved by experiment on a cubic piece, a part of which I carried away as a specimen of the quarry. The slabs are cut into various forms by circular saws, which, from their rapid motion, seem not to perform a very hard service; and the facility of working the material is no inconsiderable item of its value. From the various uses to which the soap stone is adapted, it must soon find a greater demand. In the ordeal of heat, it seems to be cousin german to asbestos, for it endures fire without warp or crack, even to a red or white heat, losing only now and then thin scales on the inner surface. Hence it is fitted and is used to answer the purpose of fire brick in the lining of stoves and forges. It is susceptible of a moderate polish, and is now fashioned into chimney pieces and ornamental work exposed to fire. Nay, more, it begins to take rank with household furniture, and is used for griddles, being found superior to iron, inasmuch as it need not be greased to give up the cakes, and does the work without the disagreeable odor arising from the same cooking upon iron. To what further and various uses the soap stone may be destined in this age of progress, I know not; but even this brief notice of so important a quarry in its incipient working, may not be without interest to the public.

As an appendix to this short article, a word may be said of the coal bed found in Brandon, connected with the iron mine. The coal is of a brown color, and a compound of heat and bituminous matter. It burns freely, and is used in furnaces for melting the iron. If wood were scarce, this great mass of coal might be more valuable. But as matter for geological speculation, several specimens of unknown fruit and seeds are imbedded in the coal, and converted into the same. Large quantities and various kinds of this fruit have been sent to Prof. Hitchcock for examination. At one time "the agent at the works, from this deposit of iron, clay, and brown coal, sent two barrels of the coal containing the fruits, and a gigantic mass of lignite—the trunk of a large tree in fact, which is now deposited in the cabinet of Amherst College." Prof. Hitchcock visited this locality, and I close with a quotation from his article presented, in connection with some papers on the Geology of Massachusetts, to the Legislature of that State.

"In the Autumn of 1851, Professor Shedd, of Burlington, presented me with a few specimens of beautifully preserved fruits from Brandon, Vt. They were converted into brown coal, and retained exactly their original shape and markings. Early in the Spring of 1852 I visited Brandon, and found that the fruits were obtained from a bed of brown coal connected with the white clays and brown hematite of that place. I perceived at once that an interesting field was open before me; and ever since I have been endeavoring to explore it. Great difficulties presented themselves, and I have resorted to several gentlemen, both in this country and in Europe, for aid. Their opinion has yet been obtained only in part. But there are several points of much interest to American Geology cleared up by what I have already ascertained."

The Professor adds, that "the fruits and seeds of this deposit are the most interesting of the relics found. But they are even more perplexing than the lignite. As yet I hardly dare venture to refer any of them to living or fossil genera known to me." The following varieties of substances, he says, are found in juxtaposition:—

1. Beautiful kavein and clays colored yellow by ocher, rose color by manganese, (!) and dark by carbon.
2. Brown hematite and yellow ocher.
3. Ores of manganese.
4. Brown coal.
5. Beds of gravel connected with the clays.
6. Drift, over-lying the whole.
7. Yellowish lime-stone, under-lying the whole.

The coal seems all to have been drift-wood, and the great specimen mass resembled "exceedingly a 'battered' piece of flood-wood," and was humourously inscribed on the box in which it was sent, "*A piece of flood-wood from Noah's Ark.*"

PREPARING INDIGO FOR CONSUMPTION.

WILLIAM PARTRIDGE, of Binghamton, New York, publishes under his own signature in the *Scientific American* the following, as a new method of preparing the indigo plant for home and foreign consumption:—

Before the discovery of South America, all the blues made in Europe were obtained from the woad plant, (*isatis tinctoria*), but since the introduction of indigo the blue vats for woollens have been made with woad and indigo. My object in sending you this article is to show that the indigo plant, worked up in the same way as woad, would be far more valuable. I am led to this suggestion by experiments made with the wild indigo plant during the last English war, when no European woad could be obtained in our market.

The following is the process of preparing the woad plant for the use of the dyer:—

The seed is planted in rows, as early in the spring as the season will allow. When the leaves are ripe, which can be known by a blue ring near the top of the leaves with a spot in the center, they are gathered and ground in a trough mill, the trough being made water-tight, to prevent a leakage of the juice. Knives follow the roller to cut the plant, and thereby facilitate the grinding. When well ground, it is made into balls of about three inches diameter, and then placed on boards to be dried. Should there be any appearance of fly-blows on the balls, a little dry slacked lime must be sprinkled over them; without such precaution the balls will breed innumerable maggots, and be spoiled. Some dyers use the balls, but the greater number use them after being couched. The woad plant affords three pickings in one season, and when the whole have been balled and dried, the balls are beaten pretty fine with mallets, or passed through a pair of rollers, then moistened with water, and laid in a heap to ferment. When the heap becomes quite warm, it is turned over to prevent the fermentation from progressing too fast. This operation is repeated several times, until the heap becomes perfectly and uniformly cool; it is then packed in hogsheads, and no further fermentation will ensue. The French and Germans sell their woad in balls, and they are couched by the dyer, or by some one he employs for that operation. I have bought many hogsheads of their balls sent to New York for a market.

The woad vats used in England are $7\frac{1}{2}$ feet diameter at the bottom, 6 feet at the top, and 7 feet in depth. To set one of these, 560 pounds of woad is used with 24 pounds of indigo. This vat can be kept at work for six months when skillfully managed, by adding more woad and indigo when required. The quantity of woad used for the six months is 1,120 pounds, or one ton for each per annum. My consumption, when so employed in England, was 24 tons yearly; and my younger brother, who now occupies the same premises much enlarged, has consumed from sixty to seventy tons in one year.

Indigo used in the woad and other vats has to be deoxydized by fermentation, or by some suboxydized metal, and brought back to the same state as the liquor in making indigo when drawn from the steep, before it is oxydized in the beater; and if the fermentation of this liquor were regulated by the same means as is the woad vat, it would make an excellent and permanent blue dye. As the indigofera plant contains vastly more indigo than the *isatis*, why, if prepared after the same manner, would it not answer for both woad and indigo—at least with much smaller additions of indigo? The consumption of woad in Europe amounts, annually, to many thousands of tons, and if the dyers there could be supplied with the indigo plant prepared in the same way, there can be no doubt but the consumption would soon be quadrupled.

WM. PARTRIDGE.

LEAD MINES AND LEAD TRADE.

According to the *Missouri Republican* of St. Louis—good authority—the product of the Upper Mississippi Mines, for the year just closed, exhibits but a slight increase on that of 1852—say, 17,186 pigs, equal to 1,203,020 lbs.

The receipts at this port, aggregate 441,889 pigs this year, against 409,314 last year. Of this 5,815 came from the Missouri, and the balance from the Upper and Lower Mississippi. The Galena table gives the quantity shipped per river at 402,343—deduct from this the Missouri receipts, and the balance, it is fair to suppose, came from the lower mines, say 34,231 pigs.

Prices are advancing each year, as will be observed by the general statement furnished above. That statement has reference to Galena rates. At this point they are relatively as progressive. In our last annual report we gave a running account of the prices for 1852, as follows: from the first of January to near the close of March \$4 25 was the rate, when it fell to \$4 20; and at the commencement of April declined to \$4 10; about the middle of April it rose to \$4 15, and continued to rise gradually until the latter part of May, when it attained \$4 50; from this time until the last of June it alternately stood at \$4 45 and \$4 50, and in July fell to \$4 35 and \$4 30, and thus remained until the middle of August when it ruled at \$4 40; in the early part of September a permanent advance commenced, and at the close \$4 50 was reached, which was held until the middle of November, when it went up to \$4 75; during the early part of December it ruled firmly at \$4 87½, and towards the middle at \$5, at the close \$5 25, at which price our report closed, noticing a decided upward tendency.

We give herewith, in a briefer form, the ruling prices of 1851 and the year just closed:—

	1851.	1852.		1851.	1852.
January...	\$4 38 a 4 40	5 50 a 5 75	July.....	4 25 a 4 30	5 35 a 5 50
February .	4 38 a 4 40	6 00 a 6 75	August...	4 25 a 4 35	5 30 a 5 35
March	4 40 a 4 45	6 50 a 7 00	September	4 20 a	5 35 a 5 88
April.....	4 25 a 4 35	5 50 a 6 00	October...	4 05 a 4 10	6 00 a 6 50
May	4 15 a 4 20	5 05 a 6 50	November.	4 13 a 4 50	6 35 a 6 50
June	4 25 a 4 30	5 40 a 6 10	December.	4 25 a 4 30	6 35 a ...

However slight the increase this year, it is important as showing the first symptom of a favorable reaction noticed for several years. In 1847 the trade exceeded that of the preceding year, (1846,) but since that period the decline has not been gradual, but rapid, falling from 772,656 pigs in 1847, to 408,628, in 1852. This season this decline was arrested, and it is reasonable to suppose the trade will return to its former magnitude. The causes to which these effects were traced, are becoming less powerful. Mining in California is losing now the attraction it first wore, and emigration to that region does not swell its ranks, as formerly, with the most enterprising men engaged in the Upper Mississippi lead mines. Remunerative prices, too, will induce a more thorough and extensive system of working; shafts will be sunk below the water level in the small beds of rock; a general interest will be taken by all classes in increasing the product, as well by those who work for wages as others, by reason of increased prices; the proper machinery for draining will be procured, and capital and knowledge employed for a better and more extensive prosecution of the business. At the prices which now rule, a marked improvement in this branch of industry may be fully anticipated.

MANUFACTURE OF ARTIFICIAL PEARLS.

In a paper recently read before the members of the Royal Asiatic Society, in England, it was stated that the artificial production of pearls from the fresh-water muscle-fish is carried on to a great extent in Hockhaw, China. The muscles are collected in April or May, and a small stone, or piece of brass or other substance, is introduced within the shell of each. A dose of from three to five spoonfuls of fish-scales, pounded and mixed with water, is then administered to the fish, and he is placed with others in the bottom of a pond. Here the fish remain, being supplied with suitable nourishment, for a year or more. They are then taken out, their shells divided carefully, and the substance which was introduced, which by this time is enveloped in a thick pearly material, extracted. By means of a small hole cut in the newly formed pearl, the stone or brass is removed, and the interior filled with white wax; a piece of the shell is then carefully fixed to the aperture, and the article is to all appearance a genuine pearl, and worth from a penny to eightpence a pair at Soochow.

DIVIDENDS OF MANUFACTURING COMPANIES IN NEW ENGLAND.

We publish below a statement exhibiting the capital, par value, and rate of dividends declared by certain manufacturing corporations in 1853:—

DIVIDENDS OF MANUFACTURING COMPANIES OF NEW ENGLAND.

	Par.	Capital.	Dividends. 1853.	
Amoskeag	\$1,000	\$3,000,000	4	4
Appleton	1,000	600,000	4	4
Atlantic	1,000	1,800,000	4	4
Bates	100	400,000	4	0
Bay State	1,000	1,800,000	6	8
Boott Mills	1,000	1,200,000	4	4
Boston	900	450,000	\$25	\$30
Boston Gas	500	1,000,000	5	5
Chicopee	1,000	700,000	2	2
Cochecho	500	1,300,000	\$30	\$30
Dwight	1,000	700,000	0	4
Great Falls	200	1,500,000	4	5
Hamilton	1,000	1,200,000	5	5
Hamilton Woolen	100	600,000	3	4
Jackson	900	540,000	0	0
Laconia	1,000	800,000	4	4
Lancaster Mills	450	900,000	4	4
Lawrence	1,000	1,500,000	4	5
Lawrence Machine	50	750,000	0	0
Lowell	600	2,000,000	\$30	\$30
Lowell Bleachery	200	300,000	5	5
Lowell Machine	500	600,000	6	0
Massachusetts Mills	1,000	1,800,000	4	4
Merrimac	1,000	2,500,000	5	5
Manchester	1,000	1,800,000	0	0
Middlesex	1,000	1,000,000	3	4
Nashua	500	1,000,000	3	3
New England Glass	500	500,000	5	6
New England Worsted	50	225,000	3	3
Otis	1,000	500,000	6	8
Palmer	1,000	160,000	0	0
Perkins	1,000	1,000,000	2	2
Salisbury	1,000	700,000	6	20
Salmon Falls	500	1,000,000	3	0
Sandwich Glass	100	300,000	5	5
Stark Mills	1,000	1,250,000	4	4
Suffolk	1,000	600,000	4	4
Thorndike	1,000	375,000	5	0
Tremont	1,000	600,000	4	4
York	1,000	1,200,000	4	3

MANUFACTURE OF STARCH.

Edward Tucker, of Belfast, (Ireland,) has taken out a patent for a new method of manufacturing starch, which is thus described in the *London Journal* :—

This invention relates to the application and use of certain salts, (both alone and in combination with mineral acids,) for the more speedy and effective separation of pure starch from the glutinous and other foreign matters with which the starch itself is originally combined, as well as to the neutralizing or counteracting of the injurious effects of the vegetable acids generated in the process of starch making, and the increase in the amount of good starch from a given quantity of wheat or other grain. By the same means, any pure water is rendered suitable for starch making, although such water may be ill adapted for this purpose in its natural state. In carrying this invention into effect, the patentee submits the wheaten meal, or reduced grain, to the usual process of fermentation, and washes it, so as to separate the bran from the rest of the materials forming the substance to be treated. The starching liquor is then run into a vat and allowed to remain for about 36 hours, for precipitation. The

supernatant liquor is next run off, or removed, and the precipitate is broken up. A solution of sulphate of soda, or Glauber's salt, in boiling water, is prepared, in the proportion of about 13 lbs. of the salt to one ton of the wheat, or other grain under treatment; and after cooling down this solution, it is poured into the precipitated starch, and the vat being filled up with water, the entire contents are thoroughly mixed, and intimately incorporated by stirring. The mass is then allowed to stand for 24 or 30 hours perfectly quiescent. In the subsequent process, technically known as the "fine shift," when the water and slimes are removed, another solution of the same salt is employed, but in much smaller proportions, about 3 lbs. weight only being applied to one ton of wheat. At this stage, in combination with the sulphate of soda, a portion of sulphuric acid is used, in the proportion of about one quart of the acid to the produce of four tons of wheat. The acid, in a diluted state, is poured gradually into the vat, which is then nearly filled up with fresh water, and the whole contents are thoroughly mixed by agitation. When the starch has been precipitated, it is finished and prepared for sale, and used in the ordinary manner. The patentee remarks, that he has found sulphate of magnesia, muriate of soda, and other salts and acids, available for a similar purpose. This general process renders all pure water suitable for manufacturing starch, however hard and unsuitable it may have been originally. The pure starch is also better separated from the glutinous constituent of the grain; whilst the manufactured starch is superior in purity, sweetness, strength, fineness of texture, and whiteness, as compared with all starch made in the usual way; and the yield is greatly increased. This is an interesting invention for our starch manufacturers.

SCHUYLKILL AND CUMBERLAND COAL TRADE.

The amount of capital invested in coal-producing mines by individual operators, in Schuylkill County, Pennsylvania, as near as can be ascertained, exclusive of investments by land-owners, which are very heavy, is as follows:—

Schuylkill Valley, 27 collieries.	\$803,300	West Branch, 42 collieries. . .	\$1,190,000
Mill Creek, 14 collieries.	436,300	Tamaqua, or Little Schuylkill,	
East Norwegian, 7 collieries . .	154,000	12 collieries.	552,000
West Norwegian, 7 collieries. .	278,000		
Total investment.			\$3,413,600

In Maryland, which is a Cumberland district, in the bituminous region, the aggregate capital invested by the various companies in mining is estimated in excess of sixteen millions of dollars. The capital is, however, to a great degree nominal. The tonnage in 1853 was 536,575. The companies are many of them speculative bubbles, and the amount of capital actually invested for working purposes small. The coal deliveries have been as follows:—

THE CUMBERLAND COAL TRADE FROM 1842 TO 1853, INCLUSIVE.

	Jennon's R. Valley.	Braddock's Run Valley.	Piedmont Region.	Total.	Pennsylvania Trade.
1842 tons.	575	951	1,708	1,108,001
1843	3,661	6,421	10,082	1,263,539
1844	5,156	9,734	14,890	1,631,669
1845	13,738	10,915	24,654	2,023,052
1846	11,240	18,555	29,795	2,343,992
1847	20,615	32,325	52,940	2,982,309
1848	36,571	43,000	79,571	3,089,238
1849	63,676	78,773	142,449	3,242,866
1850	76,950	119,898	196,848	3,332,614
1851	122,381	135,343	257,679	4,418,515
1852	174,891	159,287	334,178	5,317,010
1853	234,441	225,813	73,725	533,980	5,490,146
Total.	764,027	841,020	73,725	1,678,773	43,629,889

The Cumberland trade has undergone a great development in the past year; but its secluded position, and the dependence of the mines upon the transportation companies, are great drawbacks. The new coal companies last year talked of sending down 2,000,000 tons. The several companies, whose capitals nominally were \$18,000,000, held a meeting Jan. 5, 1853, with the President of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, in relation to transportation, and they required facilities for 7,175 tons per day, or 2,150,000 tons per annum. The result is an increase of 200,000 tons.

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

SUPPLIES FOR OUR EASTERN FISHERMEN.

We learn from an undoubted source that the difficulties hitherto experienced by our eastern fishermen in procuring supplies, when calling at St. Johns, Newfoundland, in distress from loss of cables, &c., have recently been removed, our consul at that port having made arrangements with one of the leading mercantile houses by which the articles required by our American vessels will in future be imported and always retained on hand. St. Johns is a fine and safe harbor, and being only 180 miles from the fishing ground of our vessels on the Grand Bank, would seem the most desirable port to run for in the event of accident.

We understand that cordage of the best description can be procured there on much more favorable terms than at home.

"NOTHING VENTURE, NOTHING HAVE," THE MAXIM OF THE SPECULATOR AND THE MERCHANT.

This is the common apology for rashness in all transactions.—"Nothing venture, nothing have," says the speculator, when he enters upon some undertaking which may considerably increase his wealth, or, on the other hand, may consummate his total ruin; which, to use another proverbial expression, may make him "a man or a mouse." The odds are rather extreme between these two positions. But, in the present day, men are in such a hurry to get rich, that rash ventures take the place of steady industry and perseverance, and men attempt to obtain in a few weeks or few months what formerly required years of application and integrity to effect. The annals of Capel-court would give us a curious insight into the numbers of those who, during the railway mania, were determined to have, however great might be their venture, but who found that they took nothing and lost much. This sentence was then continually in men's mouths—"Nothing venture, nothing have;" and the consequences were, that although some of those who really had nothing managed to climb up the ladder, yet that more who had something to venture speedily reduced their "noble to nineness," and were brought down to cheese-parings, like the mouse. It may be true, that in all matters of commerce something must be ventured in order to secure a profit; a man who locks up his money in a chest without using it may keep it, but the bare possession will be of no value to him. But the risks of ordinary traffic are capable of being reduced to a certainty; your venture may be calculated, and, if you are content with a somewhat smaller profit, be to a great extent insured. As far as this goes the proverb is true, that if you venture nothing you will gain nothing. In all trade there must be speculation to a certain extent; it is the very essence of commerce; but reckless gambling, in matters of trade, is as injurious, as in horse-racing, the hazard-table, or cards. And one species of gambling frequently leads to the other. The same spirit, avarice, animates both; the same principle, "Nothing venture, nothing have," directs both.

CHINESE SHOPS.

Passing into some genuine Chinese streets, I came to the conclusion that, altogether Canton presented the most extraordinary sight I ever beheld. The streets are very narrow, and hung about in all directions with signs and advertisements. Every shop has a large upright board on each side of the door, usually painted white, and on it, in red or black letters, is inscribed a list of all the articles sold. Other signs are hung out over the street, and some are fixed to poles reaching from one side of the street to the other. Many bore puffing advertisements, such as, "This Old and Established shop," &c., "The Refulgent Sign. Original Maker of the finest quality of Caps," &c., "Canton Security Banking Establishment," and "No Two Prices at this Shop," was a very common notification. The Chinese writing looks very well in this way; and

being generally red letters upon white, black upon red or yellow, and blue upon white, the array of signs had a most gaudy and extraordinary effect.

In addition to this the shops are all open in front, and a large ornamented paper lantern is hung over the door. The best street, the Regent-street of Canton, was called Curiosity or Physic street, from the number of curiosity and druggists' shops in it. The former are very attractive, and have some curious collections of old bronzes and old china, which is always very highly prized by the Chinese, who value anything that is very old and strange, and will give higher prices for old china than we should give in England. Jade stones, which look like green opaque glass, carvings in bamboo, and innumerable other things, are among their wares. The carved rhinoceros horns are very handsome, and look, when fixed in a carved-wood stand, like cornucopias. They are rather expensive, fetching from forty to fifty dollars; but it is difficult for a stranger to buy anything really good. The best carvings are done in the cities of the interior, and residents pick them up at the death of mandarins and rich men, when their effects are generally sold.—*Elwe's Sketcher's Tour.*

A MODEL DUN FOR MERCHANTS.

We find in the *Dayleston (Penn.) Intelligencer*, the subjoined advertisement, which we transfer to the *Merchants' Magazine*, without charge:—

TO MONEY LENDERS AND SPECULATORS.—I want to pay my debts, and as the only means I can devise to get money without suing, I have resolved to expose at public sale, at the court house, on Tuesday, the second week of court, (when there will be a good many politicians about,) a large number of unsettled book accounts, and the like number of notes of various dates and amounts. Many of them against nice young men, who wear good clothes, drive fast horses, and pay particular attention to the ladies—and are, of course, A. No. 1. Some against men who think they do you a favor if they buy your goods and never pay for them—they are No. 2. Some against men who promise to pay to-morrow. They are not quite so good. But a full and complete printed catalogue of the names, dates and amounts will be distributed on the day of sale. Conditions, cash.

R. THORNTON.

N. B. The above accounts will be open for settlement until the day of sale.

COMMERCE A PEACE-MAKER.

Commerce has done more than all other influences combined to promote peace among men, and it ever shudders at the sight of the flashing steel. In order to see how a war between the principal nations of Europe will injure our financial interests, we have but to look at a single item of our national exports. The cotton crop of the United States cannot be used at home. When all our spindles are at work, we cannot use 800,000 bales out of a crop of 3,000,000. In 1851 we exported 927,237,089 lbs. of cotton, valued at \$112,315,317; in the year 1852, 1,093,230,639 lbs., valued at \$87,965,732; and last year—more than ever before since this staple was first planted—we exported 1,111,570,370 lbs., valued at \$109,456,404. A general war throughout Europe must greatly diminish the power of our regular customers to consume this staple, and there are no looms in other quarters of the world which can make up the deficiency. Our total exports of domestic produce for the last year were \$189,869,162, and of this, as we have seen, over \$109,000,000 were in raw cotton. Stop this traffic, and who does not see that the great heart of trade is at one paralyzed.

HUMAN MONEY BAGS.

Many a man there is, clothed in respectability, and proud of his honor, whose central idea of life is interest and ease—the conception that other men are merely tools to be used as will best serve him; that God has endowed him with sinew and brain merely to scramble and get; and so, in the midst of this grand universe, which is a perpetual circulation of benefit, he lives like a sponge on a rock, to absorb, and bloat, and die. Thousands in this great city are living so, who never look out of the narrow circle of self-interest; whose decalogue is their arithmetic; whose bible is their ledger; who have so contracted, and hardened, and stamped their natures, that in any spiritual estimate they would only pass as so bags of dollars.

CURIOUS FACTS RELATING TO GOLD.

Among the many modes of practically applying gold, money is not the least curious and interesting. The substances of which money is composed are more numerous than many persons imagine. When society rises above the level of mere bartering transactions, any substance which is equally valued by buyer and seller may become money; and there then arises simply a question of degree, as to the fitness of one or another material. One of the earliest kinds of money was cattle, an article being valued at so many oxen; but this is obviously a coin that is inapplicable to small purchasers, for it would puzzle the seller to give change out of an ox. Shells are used to a great extent as money in India, the Indian Islands, and Africa; the cowry shells of India have a value of about thirty-two to an English farthing. Cocoa-nuts, almonds, and maize have all had to do duty as money, in certain times and countries. In hunting countries, skins are a very common kind of coin; and stamped pieces of leather are said to have been used in England in the time of Edgar. In some regions salt is used as money, cut into convenient brick-shaped pieces. In countries where rents and wages are estimated in given quantities of corn, corn may be said to be money. Dried fish is often the money of Iceland and Newfoundland; sugar has at times been a West India money; and Adam Smith tells us of a Scotch village in which nails were a current coin at the ale-house and the baker's.

But metals supersede all the above heterogeneous list in a more advanced state of society. Brass money was made in Ireland during the time of the Tudors; and at the same period lead was used for small coins in England. Charles the Second had farthings of tin; and his successor had small coins of pewter and of gun-steel. Iron was used by some of all earlier nations, and platinum is used at the present day in Russia.

It appears, therefore, that besides silver and copper, gold has many rivals as materials for coins. All yield precedence to it, however; for no other metal possesses at once so many qualities fitted for this purpose. It is very solid and dense; it is divisible or separable in an extraordinary degree; it is very little affected by air or moisture, or ordinary usage; its supply is (relatively) very limited; and its value presents a remarkable approach to uniformity in different countries and different times.

Our modern potentates, in England at least, have no trouble to obtain gold for coinage; bullion dealers, in the ordinary course of their trade, voluntarily bring gold to the mint to be coined. But such was not always the case in earlier times, nor is it now always the case in other countries; for the rulers thought it incumbent on them to place some check upon the locomotive propensities of gold. Sometimes gold was not allowed to be sent out of the country; sometimes a bonus was offered to the holders of gold to permit it to be coined; and sometimes an interdict was put up against the use of gold for trinkets and ornaments.

Perhaps the most intense gold fever the world has known—not so widely spread, perhaps, but more deep than that of California—was *alchemy*. When men thought that common cheap metals might be transmuted into gold, no wonder that they racked their brains to discover the chemical means of effecting the transmutation. The world possessed many Oldbucks, and many Dousterswivels, the deceived and the deceivers, among the alchemical craft. How the ardent students of this mystery carried on their researches, sober history or pleasant romance have made familiar to most readers; but it is not perhaps so generally known, that among our English monarchs, Edward III., Henry IV., Henry VI., Edward IV., and Henry VIII., all showed a tendency to believe in the transmuting power of alchemy; and they looked with a longing eye to the possible enrichment of their exchequer by these means. Edward III. encouraged the alchemy of Raymond Lully, until hopes were dashed by failure. Henry IV. seems rather to have feared the art than to have relied on it as a State engine. Henry VI. "patted on the back" certain alchemists, who promised him a golden return; but on their failure, he appointed a commission of inquiry, as strangely constituted as any known in our country, for it consisted of two friars, the queen's physician, a schoolmaster, an alderman of London, a fishmonger, two grocers, and two mercers. Mr. Rudding, who notices this commission in his "Annals of the Coinage," was not able to discover any record of the results of the inquiry. That this goodly cluster of Henrys and Edwards failed to make gold by the transmuting process was, perhaps, after all, more a subject of regret than of surprise to them; for it is no easy matter to detect the cheaters from the cheated among the worshippers of the "philosophers' stone;" and these worshippers, or at least some

of them, may possibly have belonged quite as much to the former as to the latter class.

Bullion, sterling, standard—all are terms employed in connection with gold as a coined metal, or as a metal about to be coined; and they let us into some curious facts concerning gold coinage. When a bullion dealer or an accountant speaks of standard gold, or a jeweler praises his goods as being made of fine gold, what is meant by these terms? And what is sterling? And are standard, and fine, and sterling, three names for the same quality?

Perhaps these questions have not been put exactly in this form, but the subject of them must have occurred to many persons. The word sterling has now very little other meaning than as a name for English coined money, so that a pound sterling means an English pound coin; but originally it had a little wider meaning. A pound in money was, Mr. Ruding tells us, in earlier times in England, equivalent to a pound of silver; that is, lb. (silver) and £ were equivalent. But when this equality was, from various causes, disturbed, the word sterling was used to designate the coined silver money, whether of pure silver or not; and the same name became afterwards applied to gold. Standard expresses the degree of fineness in gold. For coining purposes, gold is almost invariably alloyed with a little silver and copper, which renders it less flexible and more durable. A carat, in gold assaying, is an imaginary weight or rather ratio; any piece of gold is supposed to weigh twenty-four carats, and the fineness is expressed by the number of carats of pure gold; it is in fact only a peculiar mode of expressing the purity of a gold alloy. At different times the standard of English gold coins has varied greatly; but for a long period back it has uniformly been twenty-two carats fine; that is, out of every twenty-four parts by weight, twenty-two are fine or pure gold, the remaining two being copper and silver. The fine gold of the jeweler is as nearly pure as can conveniently be wrought into durable forms; but ordinary jeweler's gold is much alloyed.

Although gold coin for this country is made only at the mint, yet Birmingham is, in some respects, the headquarters of the coining art in modern times, chiefly through the famous establishment of Boulton & Watt, at Soho. Birmingham produces an immense quantity of stamped work in brass and other metals; and the die-makers, who make the stamps for this process, are merely an humbler grade of those who make the dies for coins. The dies are cut in hard steel by hand, a laborious and tedious operation. In the last century the famous Soho establishment not only coined copper money for the English government, but money of various kinds for foreign governments. The dies were produced by men very eminent in that line; men who, indeed, have rightly obtained a niche among artistic worthies. The great establishment, which had suffered much decline as one after another wealthy partner retired from it, was finally broken up by an auction sale in April, 1850; and on that occasion the lots exemplified the former extent of the coining arrangements. There were some of the most celebrated medals which had appeared in various European countries during the reign of George III.; the dies by which these medals had been stamped; British copper coins, and the dies for them; many varieties of French copper coins, with the dies; and a great variety of other coins, medals, and tokens. Birmingham still makes copper coins, by the ton weight at a time, for various countries. When Boulton & Watt commenced coining, in 1787, they had eight cutting-out presses, and eight coining processes. On one occasion the firm coined many tons of five-shilling pieces for the British government, of the silver obtained by the capture of a Spanish galleon; a troop of soldiers guarded the premises while coining was in operation.

But it is only of gold—the shining tamper, gold—that we have here to speak. The actual processes of coining are too minute and technical to be described here; they fittingly find a place in the cyclopædias, where the alloying, the melting, the casting, the rolling, the cutting, the stamping, the milling, the assaying, the weighing—all come under notice in their proper order. But there is one curious matter relating to the career of gold coins, after they come into the hands of the public, which is worth a little attention.

The wearing away of gold coin, by the constant friction to which it is exposed, is a curious matter, both mechanically and financially. No one can say whither the worn particles go; the pocket, the purse, the skin of the hand, the wooden till, the metal cash-box—all must rob the golden sovereigns of something of their weight; but we cannot see the process of diminution, nor catch the truant particles as they fly. Then, when gone, somebody must bear the loss, and who shall this be? A baker, who takes a sovereign one day, and pays it away to his miller the next, does not pay the veritable sovereign itself—it is a little lighter than when he received it; and although even Mr.

Cotton's exquisitely delicate apparatus might not be able to detect the amount of deficiency, yet deficiency there is, and several repetitions of it amount to an appreciable quantity.

From very careful investigations made by the officers of the mint, toward the close of the last century, it was found that 78 1-10th silver shillings, taken as a fair average from all those then in circulation, were required to make 1 lb. troy, whereas 62 is the number when new. Eleven years afterward another fair average was taken and another examination made, when it was found that 82 9-40th shillings were required to make a pound. But this diminution of weight is excessive, and is not likely to be exhibited by the less worn and more frequently renewed silver coinage of the present day. Still it is unquestionable that the gold and silver coins are exposed to daily wear and diminution. The government requested Mr. Cavendish and Mr. Hatchett, two distinguished Fellows of the Royal Society, to make an extensive investigation respecting the power of metals to resist friction, and their results are highly curious. They made various alloys of silver, copper, platina, iron, tin, lead, bismuth, manganese, nickel, cobalt, zinc, antimony, and arsenic, with gold. They rubbed plates of different kinds of metal over each other half a million times, to determine which resist friction best, and they rotated similar pieces among each other in a barrel. The effects were such as to reflect no little credit on those, whoever they were, who established the standard of English gold coin; for the English standard (22 gold to 2 alloy) and the quality of the alloy (silver and copper combined) were found about the best of all the combinations subjected to experiment.

In 1807 the mint officers, wishing to ascertain how much the current coin had actually lost by wear, selected at random one thousand good guineas, from a banker, and found that they had lost, on an average, 19s. per cent in value. A hundred guineas from a shopkeeper's till had lost 22s. per cent. Two hundred half-guineas exhibited a loss of 42s. per cent, the smallest coins being subjected to more severe wear than the larger. Mr. Jacob, a great authority on the subject of the precious metal, has stated it as his opinion, that, taking the average of all the gold coins in this country, and an average of all the hard usage to which the coins are exposed, each one bears an *annual* loss of about 1.900th by friction, which is a little more than a farthing in the pound. In silver coins the loss is supposed to be five or six times greater, owing to the more unceasing circulation of silver than gold, and to the less fitness of the metal to bear friction. The matter may be stated thus: Put 900 new sovereigns and 900 new shillings into average ordinary circulation; in twelve month's time the former will be worth about 899, and the latter about 894.

Of all the substances on which man exercises his manufacturing ingenuity, gold is perhaps that which admits of being brought to the most extraordinary degree of fineness. Many of the productions in this department of industry are really "curiosities." Is not a solid, unbroken, uniform sheet of gold, less than 1-500th part the thickness of a sheet of ordinary printing paper, a curiosity? Is it not a curiosity to know that one ounce of gold may be made to cover the floor of an ordinary sitting room; that one grain of gold will gild thirty coat-buttons; and that the covering of gold upon gold lace is very far thinner than even leaf gold? Let us glance a little at these remarkable productions.

And first for gold-leaf and the gold-beating processes whereby it is produced. Gold-leaf, in strictness, it certainly is not; for it is found that a minute per centage of silver and of copper is necessary to give the gold a proper malleable quality—a per centage of perhaps one in seventy or eighty. The refiner manages this alloy, and brings the costly product to a certain stage of completion; he melts the gold and the cheaper alloys in a black-lead crucible; he pours the molten metal into an ingot mould six or eight inches long; he removes the solidified and cooled ingot from its mould, and passes it repeatedly between two steel rollers, until it assumes the thickness of a ribbon; and this ribbon, about one-hundredth of an inch in thickness, and presenting a surface of about five hundred square inches to an ounce, passes next into the hands of the gold-beater.

The working-tools, the processes, and the products of a gold-beater, are all remarkable. That puzzling material, "gold-beater's skin," is an indispensable aid to him; it is a membrane of extreme thinness and delicacy, but yet tough and strong, procured from the intestines of the ox; eight hundred pieces of this skin, four inches square, constitute a packet with which the gold-beater labors, and thus he proceeds:—A hundred and fifty bits of ribbon gold, an inch square, are interleaved with as many vellum leaves four inches square; they are beaten for a long time with a ponderous hammer, on a smooth marble slab, until the gold has thinned and expanded to the size of the

vellum. How the workman manages so as to beat all the pieces equally, and yet beat none into holes, he alone can answer; it is one of the mysteries of his craft. The gold is liberated from its vellum prison, and each piece cut into four; the hundred and fifty have thus become six hundred, and these are interleaved with six hundred pieces of gold-beater's skin, which are then packed into a compact mass. Another beating then takes place—more careful, more delicate, more precise than the former—until the gold, expanded like a silk-worm, so far as its envelope will admit, requires to be again released. The leaves are again divided into four, by which the six hundred become twenty-four hundred; these are divided into three parcels of eight hundred each, and each parcel is subjected to a third beating. Heavy as the hammers are, there are yet degrees of heaviness; first, a sixteen-pounder gives its weighty thumps, then a twelve-pounder, and in this last operation a hammer of ten pounds is employed.

Now, if we exercise a little arithmetic, we shall find that the thin ribbon of gold has become thinner in an extraordinary degree; in fact, it is reduced to about 1-180th part of its thickness. A sheet of paper is equal in thickness to 800 gold ribbons, but one gold ribbon is equal to 180 gold leaves; thus the little ingot of two ounces becomes spread out to a very large area. An apartment twelve feet square might be carpeted with gold for six or eight guineas; a thin carpet, it is true, but one of sound honest gold, purer than even standard gold.

The applications of this exquisitely fine substance are numerous and varied. In the edges of books, in picture-frames and looking-glasses, in the gorgeous decorations of the House of Lords and other sumptuous apartments, in gilt leather—we see some among the many applications of gold-leaf. In all these cases the gold is applied and secured by the aid of a particular kind of cement or gold size; and this cement differs in character, according as the gold is or is not to be burnished with a smooth piece of agate or flint. The whole of the accompanying processes are full of ingenious "curiosities," both in the effects produced, and in the modes of producing them; but we hasten to glance at one of the other forms of extremely delicate attenuation of gold.

Gold-lace is *not* gold-lace. It does not deserve this title, for the gold is applied as a surface to silver. It is not even silver-lace, for the silver is applied to a foundation of silk. Therefore, when we are admiring the glittering splendor of gold-lace, we should, if "honor be given where honor is due," remember that it is silk-lace, with a silver-gilt coating. The silken threads for making this material are wound round with gold wire, so thickly as to conceal the silk; and the making of this gold wire is one of the most singular mechanical operations imaginable. In the first place, the refiner prepares a solid rod of silver, about an inch in thickness; he heats this rod, applies upon the surface a coating of gold-leaf, burnishes this down, applies another coating, burnishes this down, and so on, until the gold is about one-hundredth part the thickness of the silver. Then the rod is subjected to a train of processes, which brings it down to the state of a fine wire; it is passed through holes in a steel plate, lessening step by step in diameter. The gold never deserts the silver, but adheres closely to it, and shares all its mutations; it was one-hundredth part the thickness of the silver at the beginning, and it maintains the same ratio to the end.

As to the thinness to which the gold-coated rod of silver can be brought, the limit depends on the delicacy of human skill; but the most wondrous example ever known was brought forward by the late Dr. Wollaston, a man of extraordinary tact in minute experiments. This is an example of a solid gold wire, without any silver. He procured a small rod of silver, bored a hole through it from end to end, and inserted in this hole the smallest gold wire he could procure; he subjected the silver to the usual wire-drawing process, until he had brought it to the finest attainable state; it was, in fact, a silver wire as fine as a hair, with the gold wire in its centre. How to isolate this gold wire was the next point: he subjected it to warm nitrous acid, by which the silver was dissolved, leaving a gold wire one thirty-thousandth of an inch in thickness—perhaps the thinnest round wire that the hand of man has yet produced. But this wire, though beyond all comparison finer than any employed in manufactures, does not approach in thinness the film of gold on the surface of the silver in gold-lace. It has been calculated that the gold on the very finest silver wire for gold-lace is not more than *one-third of one-millionth of an inch* in thickness; that is, not above one-tenth the thickness of ordinary leaf gold! The mind gets not a little bewildered by these fractions; but we shall appreciate the matter in the following way:—Let us imagine that a sovereign could be rolled or beaten into the form of a ribbon, one inch in width, and as thin as this film; then this ribbon might form a girdle completely round the Crystal Palace, with perhaps "a little to spare."

THE BOOK TRADE.

- 1.—*Spiritualism*. By JOHN W. EDMONDS and GEORGE T. DEXTER, M. D. With an Appendix, by NATHANIEL P. TALLMADGE, late United States Senator, and Governor of Wisconsin. Fourth Edition. 8vo., pp. 505. New York: Partridge & Brittan.
- 2.—*A Discussion of the Facts and Philosophy of Ancient and Modern Spiritualism*. By S. B. BRITTAN and B. W. RICHMOND. 8vo., pp. 377. New York: Partridge & Brittan.
- 3.—*The Present Age, and Inner Life: A Sequel to Spiritual Intercourse—Modern Mysteries Classified and Explained*. By ANDREW JACKSON DAVIS, author of "Nature's Divine Revelations," "Harmonica," &c. Illustrated with Engravings. 8vo., pp. 281. New York: Partridge & Brittan.

Not the least remarkable among the moral phenomena of the age are the various manifestations which, under the names of "rappings," "table turnings," "involuntary writings and speakings, &c., claiming spiritual origin, though developed through mortal mediums, have, within the past three or four years, excited such profound and wide-spread interest both in this country and in Europe. We have not witnessed any of these phenomena, but we are not of those who reject every new faith or philosophy that goes athwart their prejudice, or because they have not tested all the miracles that may be asserted as necessary to justify the one, or examined all the premises, arguments, and conclusions assumed as essential to establish the other. They are fit twins, the bigotry that stands doggedly in the way of new faiths, refusing to test them, and the ignorance which, by the *ipse dixit* of its own stupidity, ignores the advances of philosophy. We regard it as quite too summary and unjust a mode of judgment to refuse a hearing to whatever subject challenges our investigation, especially when that subject is become widely public, and exercises the attention of the high and low, the learned and the unlearned; when its discussion is confined to no circle nor class, but finds believers and advocates among statesmen and churchmen, the latter, often against their education, prejudice, and habitual belief. Our investigation of the subject of the three volumes before us has been of the secondary or reading order, and somewhat limited at that. As near as we can get at it from data thus collated, the object of this remarkable modern spirit unfolding appears to be to quicken and strengthen the belief of mankind in God and the immortality of the soul—in fact, to amplify and realize Christianity, which, in the "hands of creedsmen" and dogmatists has shrunk largely into mere theory and formalism. Two of the three volumes before mentioned—"Spiritualism," by Edmonds and Dexter, and the "Discussion" between Brittan and Richmond—cover almost the whole ground in question. The first is a revelation of experiences in regard to the spiritual phenomena, prefaced by eloquent expositions of the spiritual belief of the joint authors, and appended with an interesting paper by ex-senator Tallmadge. The volume makes no pretensions to theory or philosophy, being rather a simple, earnest record of facts, of which the writers have been cognizant, and of repeated spirit communications, chiefly from the spirit of Lord Bacon. The "Discussion" is the subject matter of a series of letters, written alternately (originally published in the "Spiritual Telegraph") by Prof. S. B. Brittan in defense of the genuineness of ancient and modern spiritualism, and Dr. B. W. Richmond, who holds that all the so-called spiritual phenomena are traceable and referable to purely material causes. The subject is broadly and ably discussed, and a great array of facts and arguments brought to sustain both sides; but from our reading, we must incline decidedly to the opinion that the material hypothesis of Mr. Richmond is not sustained. The character of the other work, by Andrew Jackson Davis, the celebrated "Poughkeepsie seer," may be somewhat inferred from its title. It throws much curious and interesting light upon the general subject under notice. The perusal of these three volumes, for which we are under obligation to the publishers, will hardly disincline us from looking further into the matter, as opportunity shall permit.

- 4.—*Home Scenes and Home Sounds: Or, The World from My Window*. By H. MARION STEPHENS. 12mo., pp. 288. Boston: Ftridge & Co.

This volume of sketches is very pleasantly and amusingly written. Some of the pieces have appeared before in the "American Union," "Gleason's Pictorial," and other papers. The subjects are various. Many of them show considerable merit.

- 5.—*Health Trip to the Tropics*. By N. P. WILLIS. 12mo., pp. 421. New York: Charles Scribner.

A series of letters descriptive of his visit to the tropical regions. Most delightfully written, and exceedingly entertaining. He gives an account of his trip to the Bermudas, St. Thomas, Martinique, also an insight into the manners and customs of the natives of these islands; the attractions of the climate, so soothingly adapted to the invalid; the appearance of the country, &c. His jaunt through some of the Southern States, and his visit to the Mammoth Cave of Kentucky, is finely described. The many incidents interwoven in these sketches, of life in those regions, from the graceful pen of the author, added to his superior power of description, give a charm to the book quite captivating. The perusal of the letters will afford a rich entertainment, both amusing and profitable to the general reader. To the invalid, this tropical pilgrimage may be beneficial as an inducement to try the effects of these genial climes, which are so easy of access, for the restoration of health and spirits, which benefit the author so fully realized.

- 6.—*Life on the Plains and among the Diggings: Being Scenes and Adventures of an Overland Journey to California*. With particular Incidents of Route, Mistakes, and Sufferings of the Emigrants—The Indian Tribes—The Present and the Future of the Great West. By A. DELANO. pp. 384. Auburn & Buffalo: Miller, Orton & Mulligan.

The title of this book is suggestive of its contents. Mr. Delano was one of a company who left Dayton, Ohio, April 5th, 1849, and traveled the wild wastes between the Missouri River and the Pacific Ocean. He portrays with much vividness the trials and difficulties of various kinds which marked their course through this perilous journey. In his short sojourn with the Indians of California, he is able to give much that is interesting in regard to their mode of life, habits, &c. Also the hardships which the early emigrants, especially the miners, encountered, showing how a vast work was undertaken and completed by individual enterprise, in overcoming the natural barriers of the climate and the face of the country in gold digging. His own experience and that of others is written by him in the form of a diary, which gives a freshness to the incidents and adventures related. The reader will find it both amusing and instructive.

- 7.—*Early Engagements, and Florence*. (A Sequel.) By MARY FRAZER. 12mo., pp. 281. Cincinnati: Moore, Anderson, Wiltack & Keys.

The scenes are laid in the South and West. The story unfolds the evils resulting from the rashness and thoughtlessness with which early engagements and marriages are too frequently attended. Marriage is a sacred institution, made so by the Creator for the happiness of the race. To attain its true end, all matrimonial alliances should be entered into thoughtfully, reverently, soberly. Such unions only will be followed by His blessing, consecrated and become holy, and made productive of true happiness. By this simple story, founded on the above sentiments, the object of the book is pleasantly, forcibly, and truthfully illustrated.

- 8.—*Oriental and Sacred Scenes: From Notes of Travel in Greece, Turkey, and Palestine*. By FISHER HOWE. 12mo., pp. 407. New York: M. W. Dodd.

A fellow-traveler with the author of this work truly remarks that there are many books on the lands of the Bible, but few reliable ones—and fewer still from intelligent Christian laymen, unprofessional and unpoetic. Although the present volume does not profess to occupy the sphere of critical investigation or elaborate, historic, and antiquarian research, it nevertheless contains much in relation to the scenes, manners, and customs of the parts visited by the author that will interest not only the biblical student, but the general reader. It is illustrated with maps, and a number of highly-colored engravings.

- 9.—*Romantic Incidents in the Lives of the Queens of England*. By J. P. SMITH, Esq., author of "Stanfield Hall," "Amy Lawrence," &c. 12mo. New York: Garrett & Co.

This volume furnishes another illustration of the trite but truthful proverb, that history is more interesting than romance. There is certainly much of the latter in the lives of the personages pictured in the present publication. It contains agreeably written sketches of incidents in the lives of Elizabeth Woodville, Queen consort of Edward IV., Eleanor of Aquitaine, Queen consort of Henry IV., Matilda of Flanders, Queen consort of William the Conqueror, and Matilda Atheling, Queen consort of Henry I. The volume is illustrated with several very pretty engravings.

- 10.—*Autobiography of an Actress; or Eight Years on the Stage.* By ANNA CORA MOWATT. 12mo., pp. 448. Boston: Ticknor, Reed & Fields.

Mrs. Mowatt, known to the world as a successful dramatist and actress, becomes more truly known and appreciated as we peruse the record of her life's experiences. She, who graced her profession by her life, shows that any calling, however stigmatized by popular opinion, can be honored and elevated by the example of such a character. The history of her childhood, her marriage, the reverses of fortune, which resulted in the surrender of her loved home, are touchingly portrayed. We admire her artistic and literary abilities; but aside from these attainments, we honor her for her true moral courage, exhibited in her whole career, public and private. All who read her history will see what faith, accompanied with indomitable courage, can accomplish. We see a physically feeble woman surmounting difficulties, struggling with opposition, enduring trials of every kind with a fearless fortitude. The book is simply and beautifully written, and cannot fail to answer the design for which it was intended, viz., to inspire every struggling sister in the great human family with courage to meet severest trials, and to look upon them as blessings in disguise—to strengthen the heart and hands in the performance of daily duties, however hardly paid.

- 11.—*Woman's Medical Guide.* 'Containing Essays on the Physical, Moral, and Educational Development of Females, and the Homeopathic Treatment of their Diseases in all periods of Life; together with Directions for the Remedial Use of Water and Gymnastics.' By J. H. PULTE, M. D. 12mo., pp. 386. Cincinnati: Moore, Anderson, Wilstack & Seys. New York: Newman & Iveson.

The spread of Homeopathy throughout the country, during the last ten years, has been great, beyond, we are told, the expectations of its most sanguine advocates. That it is daily increasing, any one who takes cognizance of what is going on in the world, must acknowledge. As an evidence of this it is only necessary to refer to the great number of works on the theory and practice of Homeopathy, and the increasing demand for such works. True or false, it numbers among its advocates, laymen and leaders of education, intelligence, and refinement. The object of the present volume is to supply a want felt by women who have heretofore taken their ideas of physical education, hygiene, &c., from Allopathic writers, but now, since their conversion to Homeopathy, expect the Homeopathic practitioners to furnish them with similar instructions. This, the first work on the topics embraced in the title page quoted, is designed to supply the want referred to above.

- 12.—*Homeopathic Domestic Medicine.* By J. LAURIE, M. D., Member of the Royal College of Surgeons, Edinburgh, Senior Physician of the Westminster and Lambeth Homeopathic Medical Institution Dispensary. Arranged as a Practical Work for Students: Containing a Glossary of Medical Terms. Sixth American Edition, Enlarged and Improved. By A. GERARD HALL, M. D. 8vo., pp. 826. New York: Wm. Radde.

In reproducing the present edition (the sixth) Dr. Laurie, one of the most accomplished writers and practitioners of the school, has made such additions and alterations as he regarded essential in assisting the patients or administration. The success of the work in England, and the exhaustion of five previous editions in the United States, would naturally lead to the inference that it had fulfilled its mission of dispensing healing aid to invalids, and supplied the requirements of those who need a manual of the kind. Dr. Hall, the American editor, has added, in an appendix, articles on "The Pulse, and Circulation of the Blood," "Conditions of Sleep," and "Conditions of the Heart," which add materially to the value of the work. The glossary of medical terms employed in and appended to this work will be useful to those who have not made the technicalities of medicine a study.

- 13.—*The Lost Prince: Facts tending to prove the Identity of Louis the Seventeenth of France and the Rev. Eleazar Williams, Missionary among the Indians of North America.* By JOHN H. HANSON.

This volume exhibits an outline of the results of the investigation into the history of the Rev. Eleazar Williams, and seeks to establish as a historical fact the identity of the Indian Missionary with Louis XVII. of France. The author of this interesting book has grouped together many circumstances, and produced documents which will be very apt to convince the reader on a perusal that we really have "a Bourbon among us."

- 14.—*Historical Collections of Georgia*; Compiled from Original Records and Official Documents. By the Rev. GEORGE WHITE, M. A., author of the "Statistics of Georgia." New York: Pudney & Russell. 8vo., pp. 688.

Mr. White has embodied in this volume the most interesting facts, traditions, biographical sketches, anecdotes, and whatever else relates to the history of Georgia, and from the very charter of the colony given to Gen. Oglethorpe by King George II., not an incident of any note is omitted. The revolutionary struggle, with its legendary tales and stories, occupies a large space; Indian affairs are also prominent, with their traditional wars, love stories, treaties, &c. A large portion of the value of the volume is in the immense number of official documents it contains, which, of course, are the highest authority for the matters of which they treat. The descriptions of the counties, and the natural curiosities to be found in each, are very fully treated of and illustrated by engravings of various sorts. The biographies of distinguished individuals are a leading feature of the work, as are their portraits among the numerous embellishments. The engravings are generally remarkably good for a work of this kind, though they are not a little unequal in merit. The print, paper, and getting up are a high credit to the enterprising publishers, Messrs. Pudney & Russell.

- 15.—*Autographs for Freedom*. By JULIA GRIFFITHS. 12mo., pp. 309. New York: James C. Derby. Auburn: Alden, Beardsley & Co.

In commending this, the second volume of "The Autographs of Freedom" to the public, the Anti-Slavery Society, under whose auspices it appears, through their Secretary, Julia Griffiths, "congratulate themselves and the friends of freedom generally on the progress made during the past year by the cause to which the book is devoted." The volume contains original letters, sketches, and poems from many of the most talented anti-slavery men and women in the United States, with their (*fac simile*) autographs. It is also illustrated with portraits (in the best style of line engraving) of J. R. Giddings, Antoinette L. Brown, William W. Brown, Lewis Tappan, Horace Greeley, Gerrit Smith, Charles L. Reason, Frederic Douglass, Henry Ward Beecher, Wm. H. Seward, Harriet B. Stowe, &c., each of whom have contributed to the value and interest of the work.

- 16.—*A History of Roman Classical Literature*.—By R. W. BROWNE, M. H. Ph. D., Prebendary of St. Paul's, and Professor of Classical Literature in Kings College, London. 8vo., pp. 520. Philadelphia: Blanchard & Lea.

Those who have read the author's history of Greek Literature will need no recommendation for the present volume. Like that, it meets a want long felt, presenting, as it does, to the student and general reader, information widely dispersed through a great variety of publications. The work is written in perspicuous, elegant, and agreeable style.

- 17.—*Conversion: Its Theory and Process Practically Delineated*. By Rev. THEODORE SPENCER. 8vo., pp. 408. New York: M. W. Dodd.

The objects of this work, as stated in the preface, are "to enlighten the inquirer in relation to his duty to God; to encourage the believer in faith and hope; and to aid the churches in advancing the work of grace in their congregations." The writer is an "orthodox" minister, and his work will no doubt meet with great favor from the many who sympathize with his theological views.

- 18.—*Life Scenes: Scenes Sketched in Light and Shadow from the World Around Us*. By FRANCIS A. DARIVAGE. With Illustrations by S. W. Rowse, engraved by Baker, Smith, and Andrews. 12mo., pp. 408. Boston: B. B. Mussey.

The contents of this volume have for the most part appeared from time to time in the leading magazines and journals of the day. The stories, the materials for which have been gathered from various sources, are well told; and the sketches written in the intervals of relaxation from labor are replete with agreeable thoughts, embodied in chaste and graceful words.

- 19.—*Hufeland's Art of Prolonging Life*. Edited by ERASMUS WILSON, F. R. S. 18mo., pp. 328. Boston: Ticknor, Reed & Fields.

This work has long enjoyed a wide reputation in Germany. It was first translated into English in 1797. The public are indebted to Dr. Wilson for restoring to his sphere of usefulness an able and accomplished instructor. It is replete with sound and practical suggestions on the subject of which it treats.

- 20.—*Summary of the Art of War; or a New Analytical Compend of the Principal Combinations of Strategy, of Grand Tactics, and of Military Policy.* By BARON DE JOMINI, General-in-Chief and Aid-de-camp General to his Majesty the Emperor of all the Russias. Translated from the French by Major O. F. Winship, Assistant Adjutant-General, U. S. A., and Lieut. E. E. McLean, 1st Infantry, U. S. A. 12mo. pp. 353. New York: G. P. Putnam & Co.

This volume was first published at St. Petersburg in 1837, and dedicated to the Emperor of all the Russias, who, from the present aspect of affairs, may find it necessary to refer to its table of contents on the subject-matter of the treatise. It discusses the present theory of war and its utility, and defines the six branches of the art. It has chapters on the policy and the philosophy of war, on strategy, grand tactics, and battles; logistics on the practical art of moving armies, the formation and employment of troops for combat, &c. If the philosophy of Davis, Robinson, Brittan, Edwards, and other spiritualists of our time, becomes universal, the "Art of War," (so artistically and scientifically delineated by Baron De Jomini,) will become a relic of man's undeveloped material infancy.

- 21.—*Lectures on Female Scripture Characters.* By WM. JAY, author of "Morning and Evening Exercises." 12mo., pp. 351. New York: R. Carter & Brothers.

This is the last published work of the venerable author. It consists of a series of lectures on the female biography of the Old and New Testament Scriptures. The preface of the author is dated "Perry Place, December, 1853," and while the last sheet of the work was passing through the press, the author was summoned to the spiritual world. He died on Tuesday, December 27, 1853, at the advanced age of 84. The subjects of the lectures are—the Shunamite; Mary Magdalene; Hannah; Anna, the Prophetess; the Woman of Canaan; the Woman who anointed the Saviour's head; the Poor Widow; the Penitent Sinner; the Woman of Samaria; Lydia; Dorcas; the Elect Lady; the Deformed Daughter of Abraham; Martha and Mary, and Lot's Wife. In commenting on the female characters of the past, the preacher feels himself unfettered and able to deal freely with the faults as well as the excellencies of woman, leaving the application to the consciences and the discretion of a present audience.

- 22.—*Lewie; or the Bended Twig.* By COUSIN CICELY, author of "Silver Lake Stories," &c., &c. 12mo., pp. 344. New York: James C. Derby. Auburn: Alden, Beardsley & Co.

Most of the incidents in this narrative are substantially true, illustrating the deplorable effects of neglect of rightly training and guiding the waywardness of childhood. The career of Lewie is traced through a petted youth, an ungoverned manhood, and his sufferings are depicted by the terrible consequences resulting from an uncontrolled temper. Many other scenes and incidents are interwoven in the story, which make it pleasant and attractive. But the moral of the book is inestimable, and its being founded on facts will make it more acceptable to the reader. The writer cannot fail to be good, as she so faithfully portrays the evils which owe their origin to the criminal neglect of proper parental discipline.

- 23.—*The Jew of Verona: an Historical Tale of the Italian Revolutions of 1846-9.* Translated from the Second Revised Italian Edition. 2 vols., 12mo., pp. 418 and 377. Baltimore: John Murphy & Co.

The translation and publication of this work, we are informed, was undertaken at the solicitation of many eminent Catholics, who, having read the work in the original, were desirous of having it circulated among Catholics in the United States. Father Bresciani, the author, was an eye-witness to many of the events which he relates, for the truth of which he vouches. The principal object of the author in preparing the work was, it seems, to expose the "wicked tendency and the treacherous designs of the secret societies." Of these associations he draws the most vivid pictures.

- 24.—*The Life and Labors of St. Augustine.* Translated from the German of DR PHILIP SCHAFF, Professor of Theology at Mercersburg, Pa., by REV T. C. PORTER. 12mo., pp. 150. New York: J. O. Riker.

In this little volume we are presented with a condensed but comprehensive picture of the life and labors of that eminent saint, who alone of all the ancient fathers stood high in favor with the Reformers of the sixteenth century, and exerted a mighty influence over them, as well as over the preceding generations.

25.—*Second Festival of the Sons of New Hampshire*. Celebrated in Boston, November 2, 1853; including, also, an account of the proceedings in Boston on the day of the Funeral at Marshfield, and the subsequent obsequies, commemorative of the death of Daniel Webster, their late President. Phonographically reported by ALEXANDER E. FELTON. 8vo., pp. 229. Boston: James French & Co.

Few, if any, of the States of the great American Union have sent forth more talented or distinguished men than New Hampshire—men who in other States have become eminent in almost every pursuit in life—as able statesmen, as learned jurists, as upright and successful merchants, and as clever and intelligent mechanics. The speeches and letters in the volume before us, (which may be regarded as a historical work of increasing interest,) exhibits in a lively manner the social character, energy, and indomitable love of early home associations which were recalled by the festivities of the occasion. The volume is illustrated with several portraits, and published by Mr. French—a worthy son of New Hampshire—in a very creditable style.

26.—*Right of the Bible in our Schools*. By GEORGE B. CHEEVER. 18mo., pp. 303. New York: Robert Carter & Brothers.

The argument in this little volume is constructed with special reference to some endeavors to commend to the Christian community the banishment of the Bible from our common schools. Dr. Cheever has presented that argument in a clear, if not convincing light, and with his usual ability.

27.—*Light on the Dark River; or Memorials of Mrs. Henrietta A. L. Hamblin, Missionary in Turkey*. By MARGARETTA WOODS LAWRENCE. 12mo., pp. 321. Boston: Ticknor, Reed & Fields.

These reminiscences of Mrs. Hamblin are prepared by a dear personal friend, and dedicated to the children of the deceased still in their Orient home. This memoir is a portraiture of a life sacredly devoted to the duties of humanity. She felt herself early called to a mission in a foreign land, and when the opportunity presented itself, nobly consecrated her life to the cause which she deemed so sacred. There, in Constantinople, away from kindred and home, Mrs. Hamblin cheerfully and zealously labored for that which was so dear to her heart. Amid much trial and suffering she spent her life, firm to her ideas of duty, sustained by her faith, doing all the good in her power, until sickness came upon her, when, after a few months, she died, true to the cause she had so faithfully served. The book has a melancholy interest on account of the sadness of the memorials; yet the reader must be impressed with the beautiful simplicity and unostentatious piety breathing through its pages and pervading every sentiment.

28.—*The Bloodstone*. By DONALD MACLEOD, Author of "Pynnhurst," "Life of Sir Walter Scott," etc. 12mo., pp. 216. New York: Charles Scribner.

A record of the author's life, his sojourn in Germany, his college life, marriage, and return to his native country. With the record he gives his reveries during his residence on the Rhine, in "quaint old Aldermach." The chief incident of the story, upon which the title of the book has originated, is very thrillingly and effectively related. The "Bloodstone" was a badge worn by the members of a secret society, and the design of this volume is to illustrate and unfold the disastrous consequences which sometimes ensue from binding one's self to secret ties and bonds of mystery, to a portion of the race. The author shows some of the evil effects of this fraternity, which was but one of many instituted in Germany at that time, and relates his own experience as a member. The story connected with the record of his life adds greatly to the interest of the book. It is well worth a perusal.

29.—*Letters to a Young Man, and Other Papers*. By THOMAS DE QUINCEY, author of "Confessions of an English Opium Eater," &c., &c. 18mo., pp. 300. Boston: Ticknor, Reed & Fields.

The last published volume of the complete works of De Quincey. One hundred pages of the present volume is occupied with the letters of the author to a young man whose education has been neglected in his youth; the remainder of the volume contains essays on Conversation, Language, French and English Manners, California and the Gold Mania, &c.

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HUNT'S

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE

AND

COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

MAY, 1854.

Art. I.—MAURY'S SAILING DIRECTIONS.*

WE have in this book, with its unpretending and uninviting title, another instance of the great results that spring from small facts and simple ideas. We will not venture to compare the results before us with those that sprang from Newton's apple or Galvani's frog, for from one we have the great law of gravitation, and from the other the magnetic telegraph; but we will venture to assert that since the invention of the mariner's compass, and its great adjunct, the chronometer, no such boon has been given to Commerce, and through it to civilization, as this book confers.

The small and apparently unimportant fact that when a commander was appointed, for the first time, to a ship bound from a port in the United States to Rio de Janeiro, he naturally enough asked some other captain, familiar with the route, to point out the best course to steer in order to make the quickest passage, turned over in the philosophic and comprehensive mind of the author, gave birth to the simple idea of collecting and setting forth the experience and knowledge of all.

With the hearty co-operation and support of Commodores Crane, War-rington, and Morris, successive Chiefs of the Bureau of Ordnance and Hydrography, and backed by the authority of the Navy Department under Mason, Preston, Graham, Kennedy, and Dobbin, Mr. Maury set himself earnestly to work in the collection of his facts.

Circulars were issued, addressed to the commanders of merchant vessels trading on every sea, inviting their co-operation in the work; but these were slow to take the idea. They required facts and proof, not reasoning; and

* Explanations and Sailing Directions to accompany the Wind and Current Charts, approved by Com. Charles Morris, Chief of Bureau of Ordnance and Hydrography; and published by authority of Hon. J. C. Dobbin, Secretary of the Navy. By M. F. MAURY, L.L. D., Lieut. of U. S. Navy, Superintendent of National Observatory. Sixth Edition, enlarged and improved. Philadelphia: E. C. & J. Biddle. 1854.

it was accordingly determined to start with what could be gathered from log-books of the navy, preserved in the Bureau of Hydrography. No great number of these could be found, nor were they very valuable, because they had not been kept with reference to this work; yet enough was gathered to induce Mr. Maury to express the opinion that there was a shorter and better route to Rio than the one usually pursued. The bark *W. H. D. C. Wright*, of Baltimore, Jackson, commander, was the first to try this new route. She crossed the line in longitude 31 degrees west on the twenty-fourth day out, (the usual time before was forty-one days,) and made the trip to Rio and back in seventy-five days. We have known a vessel over one hundred days in going out alone.

This was enough: it was the proof the merchant captain required. One by one, they gave in adhesion to the plan.

Ship after ship joined the corps of observers, so that more than a thousand navigators are now busied night and day, in all parts of the world, in making observations, and gratuitously collecting materials of great value to science, Commerce, and navigation. Never before has there been such a corps of observers scattered over the world, yet laboring together, and acting in concert with regard to any system or subject of philosophic research. Pages 107, 108.

Let us now see what results have been already obtained from the observations of this corps in the hands of Lieut. Maury.

The average passage to the equator of vessels bound from ports in the United States to Rio de Janeiro, before the revelations of the *Wind and Current Charts*, was forty-one days; the average now is a fraction short of thirty days. The "*Sea Serpent*" went it in eighteen days in the month of March; and the captain of the "*Stag Hound*" believes he would have made it in sixteen, but for the loss of his main topmast, which deprived him of the main topsail for nine, and of all the topgallant sails for twelve days. It is to be understood that all difficulties in the passage to Rio are, as a general rule, surmounted when the "line" is crossed.

The author thus modestly and gracefully alludes to the great benefit here conferred upon Commerce:—

A saving of 25 per cent in time for all the men and the Commerce that pass that way, is certainly an achievement which those who have co-operated and worked together to bring about may well contemplate with pleasure and satisfaction. And who are they? Sailor-men all!—the navigator who has assisted in the collection of materials, and the brother officer who has so faithfully and patiently helped to discuss them here. Page 545.

It is not to be supposed that Mr. Maury did not meet with both opposition and difficulty in the prosecution of his enterprise. There is no class of people more opinionated, or who more dislike innovation, than old sailors; and it is not until within the last few years that most of them have risen superior to their prejudices. Consequently there was discontent and opposition, and we have heard many a hearty anathema on these "d—d new-fangled notions."

The difficulties he encountered, though vexatious enough, were sometimes ludicrous. One captain, soon after its announcement, tried the new route. About the time he crossed the equator he thought he would get an observation for latitude; he did so, but in the calculation he committed the error of taking the sum instead of the difference of the sun's declination and its zenith distance, which placed his vessel in about the latitude of Rio. He accordingly steered off to the westward, and made the land about the mouth

of the Amazon. He thought it all right, and steered on until he got into five fathoms water; this, he knew, was not the depth of water about the port of Rio, so he became mystified, and stood off and on the land for several days, until the mate, happening to ascend the rigging a short distance, discovered the North Star in the horizon. This opened the captain's eyes, and he stood off to the northeast to make up his longitude so as to weather Cape St. Roque. He encountered light winds and westerly currents, and after a lapse of sixty seven days he regained, within ten miles, the same place on the line that he had left when he put his helm up to run off to the westward. He had 118 days to Rio. This seems incredible, but "we tell the tale as 'twas told to us;" and we can account in no other way for the fact that the captain, with a fair wind for his port, should steer away from it.

The average passage out to California of vessels not having the results of these researches to guide them is upwards of 180 days; but vessels with these charts on board have made it in 107, in 97, in 96, in 91, and even in 90 days; and their masters, after making allowance for the improved model of their ships, ascribe this great success to the information which they derived from these charts as to the winds and currents by the way. P. 14.

This work of induction, reasoning, and pure science has, in this connection, the absorbing interest of romance, and we know scarcely any thing more exciting and interesting than a race of four fine clipper ships from New York to California. The ships are tracked through almost every day and degree of their long course; and the calms that baffled one, the storms that beat back another, the mistakes and accidents that delayed a third and a fourth, are noted and commented upon in a style and language that add much to the pleasure and excitement of the race. We cannot refrain from quoting a specimen:—

All sailed from New York in the autumn of 1852. The Wild Pigeon, October 12th, the John Gilpin, October 29th, the Flying Fish, November 1st, and the Trade Wind, November 14th. It was the season for the best passages. Each one was provided with the Wind and Current Charts. Each one had evidently studied them attentively; and each one was resolved to make the most of them and do his best. All ran against time; but the John Gilpin and the Flying Fish for the whole course, and the Wild Pigeon for part of it, ran neck and neck, the one against the other, and each against all. It was a sweepstakes with these ships, around Cape Horn and through both hemispheres. * *

Evidently the Fish was most confident that she had the heels of her competitors—she felt her strength and rejoiced in it; she was most anxious for a quick run, and eager withal for a trial. She dashed down southwardly from Sandy Hook, looking occasionally at the charts; but feeling proud in her sweep of wing, and trusting confidently in the judgment of her master, she kept, on the average, 200 miles to leeward of the right track. Rejoicing in her many noble and fine qualities, she crowded on her canvas to its utmost stretch, trusting quite as much to her heels as to the charts, and performed the extraordinary feat of crossing, the sixteenth day out from New York, the parallel of 5 degrees north.

The next day she was well south of 4 degrees north, and in the doldrums, longitude 34 degrees west.

Now her heels became paralyzed, her fortune seems to have deserted her awhile—at least her master, as the winds failed him, feared so; they gave him his motive power—they were fickle, and he was helplessly baffled by them. The bugbear of a northwest current off Cape St. Roque began to loom up in his imagination, and to look alarming; then the dread of falling to leeward came upon him. Chances and luck seemed to conspire against him, and the mere possibility of finding his ship backstrapped filled the mind of Nickels with evil forebodings, and

shook his faith in his guide. He doubted the charts, and committed the mistake of the passage.

The Sailing Directions had cautioned the navigator again and again not to attempt to fan along to the eastward in the equatorial doldrums; for by so doing he would himself engage in a fruitless strife with baffling airs, sometimes reinforced in their weakness by westerly currents. But the winds had failed; and so, too, the smart captain of the Flying Fish evidently thought had the Sailing Directions.

The Sailing Directions advise the navigator to cross the calm belt in as straight a line as the winds will allow, not fearing the land about Cape St. Roque, or the current that is supposed to sweep round it.

Nickels, forgetting that the charts are founded on the experience of great numbers, being tempted, turned a deaf ear to the caution, and flung away three whole days and more of most precious time dallying in the doldrums.

He spent two days about the parallel of 3 degrees north, and his ship left the doldrums, after this waste of time, nearly upon the same meridian at which she entered them.

She was still in 34 degrees, the current keeping her back just as fast as she could fan east. After so great a loss, her very clever master became sensible of his error. Leaving the spell-bound calms behind him where he had undergone such great trials, he wrote in his log as follows: "I now regret that, after making so fine a run to 5 degrees north, I did not dash on and work my way to windward to the northward of St. Roque, as I have experienced little or no westerly set since passing the equator, whilst three or four days have been lost in working to the eastward between the parallels of 5 and 3 degrees north against a strong westerly set"—and, he might have added, with little or no wind.

In three days after this he was clear of St. Roque. Just five days before him, the Hazard had passed exactly in the same place, and gained two days on the Fish by cutting straight across the doldrums, as the Sailing Directions advised him to do.

The Wild Pigeon arrived first off Cape Horn; but here she met with a westerly gale which detained her ten days, while her competitors, the Fish and the Gilpin, were coming up fast with fine winds and flowing sheets. The three swung round the Horn together, as if entering on the *quarter stretch*.

On the 30th of December, the three ships crossed the parallel of 35 degrees south, (in the Pacific,) the first recognizing the Pigeon; the Pigeon saw only "a clipper ship"—for she could not conceive how the ship in sight could possibly be the Flying Fish, as that vessel was not to leave New York for some three weeks after she did. The Gilpin was only 30 or 40 miles off at the same time.

The race was now wing and wing, and had become exciting. With fair winds and an open sea, the competitors had now a clear stretch to the equator of 2,500 miles before them.

The Flying Fish led the way, the Wild Pigeon pressing her hard, and both dropping the Gilpin quite rapidly, who was edging off to the westward.

The two foremost reached the equator on the 13th of January, the Fish leading just 25 miles in latitude, and crossing in 112 deg. 17 min., the Pigeon 40 miles further to the east.

The Gilpin crossed the equator two days afterwards in 116 degrees, and made the glorious run of 15 days thence to the Pilot Grounds off San Francisco.

The Flying Fish beat. She made the passage in 92 days and 4 hours from port to anchor. The Gilpin in 93 days and 20 hours from port to pilot. The Wild Pigeon had 118. The Trade Wind followed with 102 days, having taken fire and burned for eight hours on the way.

The result of this race may be taken as an illustration as to how well navigators are now brought to understand the winds and currents of the sea.

Here are three ships, sailing on different days, bound over a trackless waste of ocean for some 15,000 miles or more, and depending alone on the fickle winds of heaven, as they are called, to waft them along; yet, like travelers on the land bound upon the same journey, they pass and repass, fall in with and recognize each other by the way; and what perhaps is still more remarkable is the fact that these ships should each, throughout that great distance, and under the wonderful vicissitudes of climates, winds, and currents which they encountered, have been so skillfully navigated that, in looking back on their management, now that what is passed is before me, I do not find a single occasion on which they could have been better handled, except in the single instance of the Flying Fish while crossing the doldrums in the Atlantic. And this mistake her own master was prompt to discover and quick to correct. Pages 724, 730.

The average saving of time effected by the Wind and Current Charts and Sailing Directions in the voyage between New York and California is 35 days. When Mr. Maury was in England, he told the merchants there that if they would join with him in these investigations, he would undertake to shorten the outward passage from England to Australia between 20 and 30 days, and the homeward from 15 to 20. An American ship was then loading in Liverpool for Australia, and was furnished by Mr. Maury with complete directions. We now have the result: she made the passage in 78 days. The average before was 111; so that we have a shortening of 33 days. We shall refer again to this Australian route.

One of the most remarkable things attending the investigations into the winds and currents, is the almost marvelous verification of theory by results. By close examination of the information collected, Mr. Maury was enabled in a letter to Captain McKay, of the Sovereign of the Seas, on one of his voyages to California, to express the opinion that he, by following out the directions given, would cross the equator in the Pacific at such a time, and would arrive at San Francisco at such another. Both of these conjectures were verified to the day. We can only look upon this as a casualty; but it made a wonderful impression on the minds of maritime people at the time, and strengthened Mr. Maury's hands for good. There are other instances of this same thing.

In calculating the best routes for the different months, I have also calculated the distance which a vessel, undertaking to follow these routes, would have to accomplish on account of detour caused by head winds, &c. On this occasion, (the race of the clipper ships above described,) only the John Gilpin and the Hazard entered the distance by log from New York to the line. The distance which, according to the Sailing Directions, each vessel would at that season of the year—after allowing for the deviations which head winds would require her to make from the straight course—have to sail to reach the equator, is 4,115 miles. The Gilpin actually logged 4,099, the Hazard 4,077; thus accomplishing, in the year 1852, the voyage by sailing the one within 38, the other within 16 miles, the distance which by calculation in 1849 it was predicted they would have to accomplish. Instances of the like are now of common occurrence. P. 730.

There is something of the same kind in the European routes. These routes are calculated from the "Pilot Chart," and they represent, each for its month, the best track on the *average* which a vessel can make.

Take the route from New York in March for illustration. It will be seen by the table that the course recommended from longitude 55 to 50 degrees is east, and that the winds are from east, on the average, 1.9 per cent of the time; and that a vessel, in steering east there, would be headed off from her course by slant winds from the northward 2.3 times, and by slant winds from the southward 15.9 times in the hundred; and that these proportions are derived from the rec-

ords of 108 vessels between these meridians in that month, or, which is the same, by 108 observations there during the month of March of different years.

The south, therefore, is the windward side then and there. Therefore these facts, thus presented, will leave the navigator, when he comes to be headed off from his course in that part of the route, in no doubt as to which tack to go upon. With the wind directly ahead, or east, he should stand to the southward or to windward, because the probabilities of the wind coming out from that quarter are greater than they are that it will come from the north.

Again, from the meridian of thirty-five degrees to thirty degrees west, the best average course is E. N. E. 1.3 per cent of the winds are dead ahead, and 19 are slant from the northward against 4.3 from the other side. Here, then, it is shown from the records of eighty vessels, that the northward is the windward side.

I have the record of two vessels which were together in this part of the ocean on their way to Europe. They had kept together so far on their way; they sailed alike; when they arrived here, the wind came out ahead—one went off on the larboard tack, (to the southward,) the other on the starboard tack, (to the northward;) the latter arrived in port ten days before the other. P. 394.

One instance more. Mr. Maury was requested to furnish instructions for two government vessels detailed to search for the ill-fated San Francisco. He directed one of these that sailed from the port of New London to steer for the intersection of the parallel of 40 degrees N. with the meridian of 70 degrees W., and then run outward along the parallel. Had this vessel been in time, she would have fallen in with the steamer, for this sunk within sight of the intersection of the parallel of 40 degrees with the meridian of 60 degrees. The searching vessel was instructed to strike the parallel of 40 degrees so far to the westward that she might be inside of the San Francisco, and speak all vessels bound in, that would cross the Gulf Stream between the parallels of 35 degrees and 45 degrees, and the meridians of 55 degrees and 65 degrees.

Here seem to us wonderful confirmation of the truth and value of the doctrine of chances. It is the same on which are based calculations of the longevity of classes or occupations; and on which policies of insurance, whether for life or property, are issued.

We have related a few *facts* tending to show the utility of the work under discussion; now let us look to *opinion* on this subject. In a letter of a committee of the Royal Society of London to Mr. Addington, occur the following paragraphs:—

With reference to the suggestions made by the scientific men of the United States, the proposition of Lieut. Maury to give a greater extension and more systematic direction to the meteorological observations to be made at sea, appears to be deserving of the most serious attention of the Board of Admiralty.

Short as is the time that this system, (Maury's Investigations into the Winds and Currents,) has been in operation, the results to which it has led have proved of very great importance to the interests of navigation and Commerce. The routes to many of the most frequented ports in different parts of the globe have been materially shortened—that to San Francisco, in California, by nearly one-third; a system of southerly monsoons in the equatorial regions of the Atlantic and on the west coast of America has been discovered; a vibratory motion of the trade-wind zones, with their belts of calms, and their limits for every month of the year, has been determined; the course, bifurcation, limits, and other phenomena of the great Gulf Stream have been more accurately defined; and the existence of almost equally remarkable systems of currents in the Indian Ocean, on the coast of China, on the northwestern coast of America, and elsewhere, has been ascertained. There are, in fact, very few departments of the science

of meteorology and hydrography which have not received very valuable additions; whilst the most accurate determination of the parts of the Pacific Ocean—which are very limited in extent—where the sperm whale is found, as well as the limits of the range of those of other species, has contributed very materially to the success of the American whale fishery, one of the most extensive and productive of all the fields of enterprise and industry. P. 35

M. Jomard, a distinguished French savan, says, in a letter to Robert Walsh, U. S. Consul at Paris:—

You can tell him (Lieut. Maury) that no one appreciates more than I do the merits of his Charts of Winds and Currents, and the immense service he renders to navigation and the Commerce of all people. What do I say?—to humanity and to civilization.

Humboldt says, writing to Dr. Flügel, U. S. Consul at Leipzig:—

I beg you to express to Lieut. Maury, the author of the beautiful Charts of the Winds and Currents, prepared with so much care and profound learning, my hearty gratitude and esteem. It is a great undertaking, equally important to the practical navigator and for the advance of meteorology in general. The shortening of the voyage from the United States to the equator is a beautiful result of this undertaking. Pages 3 and 4.

The testimonials of the merchant captains to the value of these Wind and Current Charts are very numerous. We will quote only a few. Capt. Frank Smith, of the Messenger, says:—

I deem it but proper to say ere I close that I feel myself, (in common with the great maritime interests of our country,) greatly indebted to your invaluable researches, and the great skill you have developed in laying such a mass of information before us in such an available form as we have in your charts; and I trust your flattering success continues to animate you, and that you will make us, in due time, as familiar with the great Pacific and Indian oceans as you have with the Atlantic. That old and beaten track has been brought out of darkness into marvelous light; and I expect many important errors have possession of our minds with regard to the others which your researches are destined to dispel. And your beautiful theory on the circulation of the atmosphere gives a charm to its study that cannot fail to excite such an interest on the subject as will make every thinking sailor more attentive and observant of the great laws of nature in action around him. P. 696.

Capt. Stickney, of the ship *Corinne*, says:—

Your sailing directions, with the accompanying charts, contain much valuable information, and I would recommend them to every ship-master, in whatever trade he may be, with regard to doubling Cape Horn. P. 649.

Capt. Hallett, of ship *Phantom*:—

Now shall make a straight course for 115 longitude in parallel of 37 degrees north, as per your valuable sailing directions, which I think much of. P. 590.

Capt. Homans, Winged Racer:—

I take this opportunity to acknowledge the great benefit I have derived from your charts and directions, and shall most readily contribute what little I can to aid you in the great and good undertaking. P. 584.

Capt. Phinney, of the *Kentucky*:—

In conclusion, I cannot refrain from expressing my sense of the benefit I feel that your labors have already conferred upon the commercial world, and also my

hope that you may be permitted to follow up these researches and investigations, by which I believe navigation will, in a few years, become quite a different matter from what it has been in times past. P. 577.

Capt. Lovell, Wings of the Morning :—

Your very, very valuable Sailing Directions and Charts I consider the best guide ever given to the navigator for pointing out the way to shorten the passage between New York and Rio. P. 453.

Capt. Hartshorn, of the "E. Z.," informs me that on his last voyage in 1852 from Liverpool to New York, he made these charts his guide ; that he made the most remarkable passage of the season, (19 days,) and that vessels which sailed about the same time he did, did not arrive for 20 days and more after he did. He attributes his success to the lights which the experience of others, expressed by these charts, afforded him. P. 394.

Eldridge, of the *Roscus*, Clark, of the *Wright*, Myrick, of the *Diadem*, with many others, add their testimony to the value of the directions and the charts ; and a large number of the merchants of New York evinced their appreciation of the services rendered to Commerce by this work, by presenting the author with a service of plate and the sum of five thousand dollars.

But a better exponent of the value of the author's labors than opinion, even though it be that of great scientific men and practical men, is to be found in the action of governments. At his suggestion, most of the maritime nations of Europe sent representatives to meet Mr. Maury in conference as to the best mode of extending these valuable researches and making them general.

Representatives from Belgium, Denmark, France, Great Britain, Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, Russia, Sweden, and the United States, met at Brussels to confer on the subject of establishing a uniform system of meteorological observations at sea, and of concurring in a general plan of observations on the winds and currents of the ocean.

This was a remarkable meeting. The persons composing it were nearly all military men, representatives of nations that had often stood opposed in deadly hostility ; yet they were now here in friendly conference devising ways and means of facilitating intercourse ; of extending commercial relations by practically shortening the distance that divides these nations ; and of binding the red hands of rivalry and war in the strong chains of a common interest. Truly, it seems to us, that if the world owes nothing else to Mr. Maury, it owes him a debt of gratitude for the suggestion of the Brussels Conference.

It cannot be denied that our distinguished countryman occupied the most prominent place in this conference. He stated the object of the meeting, he drew up the report, and received the thanks of the members three several times by unanimous vote. We quote the concluding paragraph but one of the report to show the enlightened spirit that animated the members of the conference :—

Lastly, the conference feels that it would but inadequately discharge its duties did it close this report without endeavoring to procure for these observations a consideration which would secure them from damage or loss in time of war, and invites that inviolate protection which science claims at the hands of every enlightened nation ; and that as vessels on discovery or scientific research are, by consent, suffered to pass unmolested in time of war, we may claim for these documents a like exception, and hope that observers amidst the excitement of

war, and perhaps enemies in other respects, may in this continue their friendly assistance, and pursue their occupation, until at length every part of the ocean shall be brought within the domain of philosophical research, and a system of investigation shall be spread as a net over its surface, and it become rich in its benefit to Commerce, navigation, and science, and productive of good to mankind. P. 60.

We believe that the example of this inviolability of scientific research was first set by the unfortunate but magnanimous Louis XVI., who, when applied to for exemption from capture of Cook's vessel, replied that he warred not on science.

The conference conducted and finished its labors in harmony and unanimity. If so much has been done for the interests of Commerce and navigation by a single institution, (the Hydrographic Office at Washington,) what may we not expect, now that we have the great maritime nations of Europe with their gigantic fleets pledged to engage in the same work, and by general and common modes?

This work will also extend farther. Spain, Sardinia, Brazil, and all the South American republics, have expressed their wishes to join in the universal system; and we have no doubt, although the Royal Society expressed the opinion that it was inexpedient to propose a general and common system of meteorological observations on land, that it will, nevertheless, eventually extend to the land; for Maury found Quetelet, of Belgium, Kupper, of Russia, Jomard, of France, Ballot, of Holland, the governments of Portugal and Spain, and the Meteorological Society of Great Britain, in favor of his first proposition, which was to include both sea and land. Nature then, under this system of close and general investigation, will be compelled to give up many of her secrets, which, from what we have already gained, may well be supposed to be fraught with incalculable benefit to the human race.

It is not, however, to the interests of Commerce alone that this great work is directed. Besides that the mariner is given minute directions by which he may guide his vessel with more certainty and speed over the trackless waste, thus saving and enhancing the value of his owner's property, the husbandman may find in it much of practical value, and the philosopher a *pabulum animi*, upon which he may feed with delight and fatten on its richness. The author says, pp. 4 and 5:—

A wider field or one more rich with promise has never engaged the attention of the philosopher. Though much trodden and often frequented, it has never been explored, if we take exploration to mean the collecting and grouping all those phenomena which mariners observe in relation to the ocean, and the air above it, with the view of tracing, in the true spirit of inductive philosophy, fact into effect, and effect up to cause.

The wind and rain; the vapor and the cloud; the tide, the current, the saltiness, and depth, and temperature, and color of the sea; the shade of the sky; the temperature of the air; the tint and shape of the clouds; the height of the trees on the shore; the size of the leaves; the brilliancy of the flowers,—each and all may be regarded as the exponent of certain philosophical combinations, and therefore as the expressions in which nature chooses to announce her own meaning; or, if we please, as the language in which she writes down the operation of her own laws. To understand that language and to interpret aright those laws, is the object of the undertaking which those who co-operate with me have in hand. No fact gathered in such a field as this, therefore, can come amiss to those who tread the walks of inductive philosophy; for in the hand-book of nature every such fact is a syllable; and it is by patiently collecting fact after fact, and joining together syllable after syllable, that we may finally seek to read

aright from the great volume which the mariner at sea and the philosopher on the mountain sees spread out before him.

The author then goes on, in a series of elegant and most instructive papers, to illustrate and teach by example how much may be done by this "patient gathering of fact after fact, and joining together syllable after syllable."

The first of these papers is on the influence of the Gulf Stream on the trade of Charleston; then follow the Currents of the Sea; the General Circulation of the Atmosphere: Red Fogs and Sea Dust; Magnetism and the Circulation of the Atmosphere; Of Clouds and the Equatorial Cloud-ring; On the Geological Agency of the Winds; On the Saltness of the Sea; and the Open Sea in the Arctic Ocean.

These papers are all exceedingly philosophical and beautiful—written in a most attractive style, and occasionally setting forth very strange and important things—such, for instance, as the proof from induction, that the Gulf Stream is a current of water running up hill; that the currents which enter the Mediterranean and Red Sea run down hill, and that there is a counter current of salter and heavier water running out into the Atlantic and Indian oceans below these entering currents; that there is a system of southerly monsoons in the equatorial regions of the Atlantic, of another in the Gulf of Mexico, and off the west coast of America in the Pacific; that the trade-wind zones, with their belts of calms, have a vibratory motion on the meridian, the limits of which are determined and pointed out for each month; that the S. E. trade-winds are stronger than the N. E., and cover a broader belt on the ocean; that the prevailing winds of the Southern are stronger than those of the Northern hemisphere; that the mean temperature of the Northern is higher than that of the Southern hemisphere. The causes of the rainy and dry seasons are set forth, and also the means of telling wherever on the earth's surface the seasons are so divided by nature; the parts of the ocean in which sperm and right whales most resort is discovered and pointed out; also the interesting fact in the natural history of this animal, that the right whale cannot cross the Torrid Zone, &c.

Besides these, which are susceptible of proof, these papers give reason to believe that the air which the S. E. trade-winds discharge into the belt of equatorial calms, after ascending there, flows, for the most part, over into the Northern hemisphere; while that which the N. E. trades discharge into the same belt, passes in like manner over into the Southern hemisphere. Indeed, this may be said to be susceptible of proof; for we learn from the paper on the "Red fogs and sea dust" that these phenomena have been, in the author's mind, converted into tallies for the atmosphere. The microscope of Professor Ehrenburg has discovered that these are not fogs or dust, but infusoria and organisms, whose "habitat" is in the S. E. trade-wind region of South America. Their place of deposit is about the region of the Cape de Verd Islands. They could not have got there by traveling near the surface of the earth, for the N. E. trade-winds would be dead against them. The conclusion thus becomes almost irresistible that they rose from the parched savannahs of the Amazon and Orinoco, where they were seen by Humboldt, into the upper regions of the atmosphere, and flowed over the N. E. trades in a N. E. direction, until some unknown cause has brought them to the surface of the earth about and within the Straits of Gibraltar.

We have also reason to believe, from these investigations, that the calms

of Cancer and of Capricorn are caused by the meeting of two upper currents—the one from the pole being dry, the other from the equator being charged with vapor; that there is a region of calms near the poles in which the barometer, on a level with the sea, stands lower than it does generally on the sea level of the earth, and the inquiry is suggested, whether the magnetic pole is not within this region; that the waters of the Mississippi River and great American lakes are rained from clouds, the vapor of which was taken up from the South Pacific Ocean; while the waters of the Amazon and Orinoco are evaporated exclusively from the Atlantic; that magnetism is probably an agent in giving direction to the circulation of the atmosphere, and the question is raised if it be not concerned in the currents of the ocean also; that the basin which holds the Gulf of Mexico is about a mile deep on the average; that the Caribbean Sea, in the deepest parts, is nearly three miles, if no more; that the North Atlantic is about five; the South, at least three; and the Gulf Stream, in the Florida Pass, 500 fathoms deep; that the same whale is found in Behring's Straits and Baffin's Bay; and the fact is pretty nearly proved that this fish cannot get from one place to the other, except through the Arctic Ocean, &c.

Among the remarkable things shown by these investigations are certain barometrical anomalies off Cape Horn. It is clearly established that the barometer stands, on an average, nearly an inch lower off Cape Horn than it does in the trade-wind region. A very small amount of this difference is due, according to the author, to the fact that the barometer at Cape Horn is several miles nearer to the center of the earth than it would be at the equator, and that thus there is greater attraction, and the mercury weighs more. The amount of superincumbent atmosphere is also less than at the equator; but these are small items in the account, for at St. Petersburg, in latitude 59 deg. 56 min. N., the mean height of the barometer, reduced for a temperature of 62 deg., is 29.97.

The author, therefore, supposes that the difference is owing, in a great measure, to local agencies and causes, and calls upon navigators for more careful and extended observations upon this point.

It seems reasonable enough that observers should find a high barometer, (as is the case,) when on the western coast of Terra del Fuego and Patagonia; for there the prevailing strong westerly winds are stopped by the high, abrupt mountains of that country, causing an accumulation and piling up of the atmosphere. Something of the same kind is alluded to in the work before us, in discussing Lieut. Hendon's observations for the temperature of boiling water at the eastern foot of the Andes, in Peru, where it is supposed that the trade-winds are banked up by these mountains.

It is also equally reasonable that there should be a low barometer on the eastern coast of the same countries, for the mountains here make a lee and a partial vacuum, so that there is less pressure of the atmosphere; but neither of these causes can operate when the barometer is well to the southward of the Cape and entirely clear of the land. We must, therefore, leave this most interesting fact in physics unexplained until time, with thought, and the study of a more extended system of observations, shall unravel the mystery.

A long paper is devoted to Cape Horn passages and tracks, giving the experience of many of the co-operators in this work, and the author's views, opinions, and directions on the subject. He advises navigators to go to the westward of the Falkland Islands and through the Straits of Le Maire, if wind and daylight serve.

There is also an elaborate and interesting paper on the routes from Europe and the United States to Australia. In this connection, Mr. Maury's investigations have led him to differ from very high authority. He alludes to this difference in the following proper and modest manner:—

I do not venture lightly or without reflection to differ with the Hydrographic Office of England in matters of this sort. That is high authority I am aware. I allude to its work and the opinions uttered by it with the utmost respect. The object that I and those who co-operate with me have in view is the object for which the great Hydrographic Office of the world—that of the British Admiralty—was established and is maintained, viz., for the improvement of navigation, the benefit of Commerce, and the good of the sea-faring community.

Sailing directions, issued by the British Admiralty, recommend the Cape of Good Hope route and the parallel of 39 degrees south, as the best upon which to run down easting for Australia. Mr. Maury recommends that the Australia bound vessel should use a much higher parallel of south latitude on which to make his easting, on account of the strong westerly winds that are invariably found in high southern latitudes. He thinks a vessel should go at some seasons as far south as the parallel of 55 degrees. He states, in this connection, some facts that strike the man accustomed to look at routes only on a Mercator's Chart as very strange, that, for example, the great circle, (and of course the shortest distance,) between New York and Australia "passes very nearly through the axis of South America, thence south through the Antarctic regions, and so on northwardly again till it reaches the modern Ophir." Also, the fact, "that the Cape of Good Hope, instead of being a sort of half-way station on the road-side between Europe and the United States and New Holland, is some 1,000 miles or more to the northward of the shortest and best route." And again, that the course of vessels bound for the Cape of Good Hope, and of those bound for Australia, is the same until the region of the S. E. trade-winds in the Atlantic is passed, and that from that point the tracks diverge nearly at right angles—the Cape of Good Hope vessel steering a little to the southward of east, while the Australia trader should steer a little to the eastward of south.

We do not wish to create the impression that all this is not perfectly well known and clearly understood by the English Hydrographical Office, or that it is unaware of the strong westerly winds that prevail in high southern latitudes. It seems to direct the Cape of Good Hope and the parallel of 39 deg. on account of the ice and the tempestuous weather that may be encountered farther south. Mr. Maury thinks that there is no great danger to be anticipated from these causes. He exhibits the logs of several ships that have made fine runs in these high latitudes. Among them, the *Sovereign of the Seas* ran, in 22 days, 5,391 nautical miles, equal to 6,245 statute miles, or one-fourth the distance round the earth. She made a daily average of 283.9 statute miles; during eleven of these days consecutively her daily average was 354 statute miles, and during four days, also consecutive, she averaged as high as 398½ statute miles. P. 757.

But it is on the passage from Australia homeward that the greatest difference is found between Maury's Sailing Directions and those of the English Hydrographic Office. Maury recommends that vessels should take advantage of the same westerly winds that have borne them so bravely along the parallels of 50 or 60 deg. to Australia, and, still steering east, (after getting in one of those parallels,) to double Cape Horn on the homeward track; while the Admiralty Sailing Directions prefer that vessels from Syd-

ney should steer to the northward, (at least in the winter time,) get in the S. E. trade-winds, and return by the Cape of Good Hope. The distance by either route is about the same. We think the English route the pleasantest, and probably the safest; Maury's far the quickest. He says:—

The opinion may be rash, or the expression of it may seem like a boast, but be it what it may, I here venture the prediction that the round voyage from the United States to Port Philip or Hobart Town and home again, can be made, and will be made under canvas, by the route here laid down, in 130 or 135 days or less. P. 752.

It used to be a ten months' voyage.

By an act of Congress, approved March 3, 1849, the Secretary of the Navy was authorized to assist me in the undertaking to investigate the phenomena of the winds and the waves, to find short routes, and to discover matters of importance to Commerce and navigation. The following is the joint resolution which expressed the wishes of Congress in the matter:—

"SEC. 2. And be it further enacted, That the Secretary of the Navy be directed to detail three suitable vessels of the navy in testing new routes and perfecting the discoveries made by Lieut. Maury in the course of his investigations of the winds and currents of the ocean; and to cause the vessels of the navy to co-operate in procuring materials for such investigations, in so far as said co-operation may not be incompatible with the public interest: provided, that the same can be accomplished without any additional expense." P. 213.

From this section of a law has sprung a new science, which Maury has Humboldt's authority for designating the "Physical Geography of the Sea." The men-of-war generally and the merchant-ships were giving him all the needful information to be had above the surface of the sea. He, therefore, undertook to employ the two small vessels that were placed at his disposal—the *Taney* and the *Dolphin*—in penetrating below the surface; in searching the chambers of the deep, and in "plucking up drowned science by the locks."

The subjects of observation to which the attention of these vessels was directed, were—

1. The force and direction of the wind, the hourly state of the weather, and all the meteorological conditions connected therewith—as thermal, dynamical, barometrical, and the like.
2. The force and set of currents, their depth and width, their temperature, and the position of their edges and limits.
3. Hourly observations upon the temperature of the surface water.
4. Frequent observations upon the temperature of the ocean at various depths.
5. Deep sea soundings.
6. Vigias and all dangers about which there are doubts, either as to existence or position.
7. Transparency and saltness, or the specific gravity of sea water in the different parts of the ocean.

With these instructions, Lieut. J. C. Walsh, in the *Taney*, and Lieuts. S. P. Lee and O. H. Berryman, in the *Dolphin*, with an occasional contribution from the regular men-of-war, have performed yeomen's service in this new and interesting field. By the most thorough system of search, they have erased from the charts no less than 30 supposed dangers, which have heretofore given to the anxious mariner many a watchful hour; they have discovered currents beneath the surface of the sea, and marked their depth, their force, their direction, and their temperature; and, lastly, by the

aid of several simple but ingenious contrivances, used with energy, perseverance, and the skill imparted by experience, they have sent the plummet where it never before reached, and brought from the "dark," and, hitherto, "unfathomed caves of ocean," things more precious than "gems of purest ray serene."

The implements used by these officers for their deep sea soundings were, a reel, made to fit firmly and securely in a boat; a 32, or two 32 pound shot for a plummet; and thousands of fathoms of strong, well-made fishing-line, of about one-tenth of an inch diameter, wound on the reel, and marked at every 100 fathoms. The soundings were always made from a boat. By means of the oars, the boat could be kept over the shot as it sank, and by noting the time of the running out of each hundred fathoms, a tolerably correct judgment might be had as to when the shot reached the bottom. Indeed, Berryman says that his officers became so expert, that they could tell by feeling the line whether the shot were pulling it out or whether it were merely carried out by the force of the drift.

With such simple implements as these, they have enabled Mr. Maury to draw a chart of the bottom of the North Atlantic, (Plate 14,) showing something of its configuration, and to pronounce authoritatively, that that sea is probably nowhere more than a little over five miles deep. More than eight miles of line have been run out; but on investigation of the circumstances attending, the sound showed, almost conclusively, that the plummet had been at the bottom long before the length had been run out, and that the line was still carried out by an under current.

The apparatus for observing these under currents is also very simple. Let us say, that it is desired to try the current at 100 fathoms below the surface. The boat is first anchored, as it were, either by her sounding line, with the shot on the bottom, or by lowering a large iron kettle to a considerable depth, when it is supposed that the surface current, acting upon the boat, will not be strong enough to drag that kettle, mouth first, through the water. The set and velocity of the surface current is then observed. Then a square wooden box, loaded just sufficiently to make it sink, is attached to the end of a line of 100 fathoms in length and thrown overboard. It, of course, sinks to the depth of that 100 fathoms; and a small keg, or inflated india-rubber bag, fastened to the other end of the 100-fathoms line, floats upon the surface, and prevents the box from sinking further. The box is now under the influence of any current that it may find at that depth, and carries the india-rubber bag on the surface in the same direction, and with the same velocity that it has itself. This direction and velocity is easily ascertained by means of the compass and log-line. Mr. Walsh, in giving an account of one of his experiments, says:—

It was wonderful indeed to see this *barrica* (little barrel) move off against wind and sea and surface current, at a rate of over one knot the hour, as was generally the case, and on one occasion as much as $1\frac{1}{4}$ knots. The men in the boat could not repress exclamations of surprise, for it really appeared as if some monster of the deep had laid hold of the weight below and was walking off with it. Fifth edition, p. 168.

But the crowning triumph and most wonderful result of these investigations is in getting specimens of the bottom of the sea, from a depth of more than two miles. Until the last cruise of the *Dolphin*, under Berryman, the sounding line with its plummet was always lost—for, of course, the shot could not be hauled up from such a depth by so small a line; but at this

stage of the matter, Passed Midshipman J. M. Brooke, U. S. Navy, invented a contrivance by which the shot was detached from the line upon striking the bottom, and specimens of the bottom were brought up in its place.

These specimens were sent to Bailey, of West Point, and Ehrenburg, of Berlin, for microscopic examination. This examination has established the very remarkable fact that the specimens are all of the animal, not one of the mineral kingdom. Prof. Bailey, in a letter to Mr. Maury, of date of Nov. 29, 1853, says:—

I was greatly delighted to find that *all* these deep soundings are filled with microscopic shells—not a particle of sand or gravel exists in them. They are chiefly made up of perfect little calcareous shells, (*foramenifera*.) and contain also a small number of silicious shells, (*diatomacea*.) P. 298.

We are concerned that we have neither time nor space to quote the entire paper (which Maury calls the "Ooze and Bottom of the Deep") upon this interesting subject. It is replete with full and varied knowledge, and rich with the suggestions of a profound and philosophic thought, set forth in the most attractive manner and glowing language.

The author thinks that a great work in the economy of nature is performed by these minute animalcules. He supposes, with Prof. Bailey, that they do not live where they are found, but in the water near the surface of the sea, and are buried in the "lichen caves below after death;" that they are, therefore, by filling up and leveling the bottom of the sea, performing there the geological work which "heat and cold, rain and sunshine, the winds and the streams, all assisted by the forces of gravitation," are performing upon the surface of the dry land above.

In his paper on the "Saltness of the Sea," p. 177, Mr. Maury all but demonstrates that these animalcules exercise a powerful influence in giving motion to the waters of the sea, and thus contributing to keep up the system of oceanic circulation.

In the paper at present under consideration he says:—

Should it be established that these microscopic creatures live at the surface, and are only buried at the bottom of the sea, we may then view them as conservators of the ocean, for, in the offices which they perform, they assist to preserve its *status*, by maintaining the purity of its waters.

It is admitted that the salts of the sea come from the land, and that they consist of the soluble matter which the rains wash out from the fields, and which the rivers bring down to the sea.

The waters of the Mississippi and the Amazon, together with all the streams and rivers of the world, both great and small, hold in solution large quantities of lime, soda, iron, and other matter. They discharge annually into the sea an amount of this soluble matter which, if precipitated and collected into one mass, would no doubt surprise and astonish the boldest speculator with its magnitude.

This soluble matter cannot be evaporated. Once in the ocean, there it must remain; and as the rivers are continually pouring in fresh supplies of it, the sea, it has been argued, must continue to become more and more salt.

Now, the rivers convey to the sea this solid matter mixed with fresh water, which, being lighter than that of the ocean, remains for a considerable time at or near the surface. Here the microscopic organisms of the deep-sea lead are continually at work secreting this same lime, soda, &c., and extracting from the seawater all this solid matter as fast as the rivers bring it down and empty it into the sea.

Thus we haul up from the deep sea specimens of dead animals, and recognize in them the remains of creatures which, though invisible to the naked eye, have

nevertheless assigned them a most important office in the physical economy of the universe, viz., that of regulating the saltness of the sea.

This view suggests many contemplations. Among them, one in which the ocean is presented as a vast chemical bath, in which the solid parts of the earth are washed, filtered, and precipitated again as solid matter, but in a new form and with fresh properties.

Doubtless it is only a readaptation, though it may be in an improved form, of old and perhaps effete matter to the uses and well-being of man. P. 301.

A more interesting, ingenious, and possibly practical speculation, however, concerning these organisms, lies in this: the author asks the question—Did they live in the surface waters immediately above their place of burial, or were they brought from some remote region and there deposited? Should the microscope discover that these dead animals, found in one place, had living types only in another and far-distant one, the conclusion seems inevitable that they were borne thence by the currents of the ocean, sinking slowly in their progress until they reached their final resting place; and here, as in the case of the red fogs and sea-dust tallying the viewless winds, we have also tallies upon the invisible currents below the surface of the sea, by which to track them in their course. Mr. Maury says:—

It is vain to attempt to answer the *cui bono* in all the bearings of facts like these. Suffice it to say, they are physical facts—and in them, therefore, there is knowledge. They are facts that concern our planet, and touch the rightly-knowing and well-being of its inhabitants.

We perceive, however, that he has undertaken to draw a great and important conclusion from some of these facts, and to advocate a great practical enterprise. In a recent letter to the Secretary of the Navy, Mr. Maury shows, from his soundings, that there is a nearly level plateau from Newfoundland to the coast of Ireland, nowhere more than 1,500 fathoms deep; and from the perfect, unbroken, and unabraded condition of the shells of the deep-sea animalcules, he argues that there are no currents at the bottom of the ocean in that region, and therefore thinks that there are no difficulties which may not be overcome by skill and inventive genius. He proposes that the government should offer a premium as an incentive to the planning and undertaking of the work.

Our readers have now seen, imperfectly expressed, however, the great addition to human knowledge, and therefore to human prosperity and well-being, made by this most valuable book. A glance at the saving of money to our countrymen effected by it will close our notice:—

At the last meeting of the British Association, it was stated by a distinguished gentleman from Bombay, that where he came from it was estimated that a set of charts and sailing directions for the eastern seas, based upon the principles of these, would produce an annual saving to British Commerce that would be equivalent to a gain of from one million to two millions of dollars. P. 750.

Now let us make a calculation of the annual saving to the Commerce of the United States effected by those charts and sailing directions. According to Mr. Maury, the average freight from the United States to Rio Janeiro is 17.7 cts. per ton per day, to Australia 20 cents, to California also about 20. The mean of this is a little over 19 cents per ton per day, but to be within the mark we will take it at 15, and include all the ports of South America, China, and the East Indies.

The Sailing Directions have shortened the passages to California 30 days, to Australia 20, to Rio Janeiro 10. The mean of this is 20, but we will

take it at 15, and also include the above-mentioned ports of South America, China, and the East Indies.

We estimate the tonnage of the United States engaged in trade with these places at 1,000,000 of tons per annum.

With these data, we see that there has been effected a saving for each one of these tons of 15 cents per day, for the period of 15 days, which will give an aggregate of \$2,250,000 saved per annum. This is on the outward voyage alone, and the tonnage trading with all other parts of the world is also left out of the calculation. Take these into consideration, and also the fact that there is a vast amount of foreign tonnage trading between these places and the United States, and it will be seen that the annual sum saved will swell to an enormous amount.

And this is the result of an idea worked out with deep thought, patient labor, and untiring perseverance. It will confer imperishable renown, but we think it wrong and hard that it should confer no profit. Could Mr. Maury, like the ordinary inventor, sell his idea; could he take out a patent, and, by authority, put toll-gates upon the ocean, charging the vessels that used his new and improved road but the fraction of a penny upon their tonnage, (which their owners would freely pay,) his income from this source would be in some manner commensurate with the benefits conferred and the saving effected. But since this cannot be so, we think that it would be true policy in this great and rich government to buy his idea and its results, the Wind and Current Charts and Sailing Directions, and thus reward, in the only proper way it can, its distinguished servant.

ART. II.—COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES.

NO. VII.

NAVIGATION ACT OF 1651—MINT IN MASSACHUSETTS—CLAYBORNE AGAIN—NAVIGATION ACT OF 1660, ITS EFFECT UPON ENGLAND AND THE COLONIES—MINT IN MARYLAND—RHODE ISLAND CHARTER—AMENDMENT OF THE NAVIGATION ACT—NEW YORK—FRENCH WEST INDIA COMPANY—SHIPBUILDING IN MASSACHUSETTS—LOGWOOD CUTTING AT HONDURAS—THE MISSISSIPPI.

In 1651, premiums were offered in Virginia to encourage the growth of Wheat, and the production of Wine. A little wine had been made in 1647; it was more than a century later before wheat came much into cultivation.

The Rump Parliament, with that regard to the commercial interests of England which was exhibited throughout the whole Republican period, but particularly incited by hostility to Holland, and a desire to destroy alike her commercial eminence and the naval power built up thereon, turned its attention to the protection and encouragement of English navigation, and enlargement of the English navy.* The Dutch were now the great carriers of the world. Having but few exportable products of their own, they relied for employment on their merchant ships, and for the means of sustaining

* War broke out between the Republics of England and Holland in 1652, ending in three years, with the humbling of the latter. Blake and Dean were the English admirals, opposed by De Ruyter and Van Tromp. John De Witt was at the head of the Dutch ministry, Sir Henry Vane directed the English naval and foreign department, until Cromwell came into power. These two were among the ablest ministers of the time.

their naval power, upon the insecure basis of the carrying-trade of other nations, and particularly of England. Their rates of freightage were so cheap, that competition with them by the vessels of the latter was impossible. The Dutch were employed to bring home even the products of the British colonies in America. No other alternative remained to British ship-owners but to enter the Dutch service, or to allow their vessels to rot in their own harbors. To remedy this state of things, the celebrated act of 1651, known as the first of the series of British *Navigation Laws*, though not the first act adopted with the especial design of advancing the navigation interest of England, and of building up her navy, was passed. The act provided, that no goods or commodities whatever, the growth, production, or manufacture of Asia, Africa, or America, shall be imported either into England or Ireland, or *any of the plantations*, except in English-built ships, and belonging either to England or to English plantation subjects, and of which the master and three-fourths of the crew are also English; and that no goods of the growth, production, or manufacture, of any country in Europe, should be imported into Great Britain, Ireland, or the plantations, except in British ships or in such ships as were the real property of the people of the country or place in which the goods were produced, or from which they could only be, or were usually exported. And that no fish should thenceforward be imported, nor exported to foreign ports, nor even from one of their own home ports, except the products alone of their own fishery.

Thus, in its application to the American colonies, the object of this act was, to cut off intercourse between them and Europe in either their own or foreign vessels; to prevent them from trading even to England, in their own vessels; in fact to break up entirely the whole shipping interest of the colonies, reducing them to exclusive dependence upon British navigation; and finally, by cutting off the leading staple of the exports of New England from foreign markets, prohibiting even its re-exportation from England, to retain those markets for the sole benefit of British fishermen and British vessels; discouraging thus the progress of the colonial fisheries, and all the dependent interests, in order to encourage their own. Such was the cost to America at which England was then willing to promote the interests of her shipping and her fisheries, and to find the means of enlarging her navy, in the hope of crushing the ascendancy of the Dutch.

Had this act been strictly enforced, in regard to the colonies, as it was at all other points, it would have completely prostrated New England, checking her progress in every direction, since her material concerns were all so intimately bound up with her fisheries and outward Commerce. But their ready adherence to the cause of the Commonwealth, induced both Cromwell and the Parliament to favor them, and their violation of the law was accordingly winked at. While the Republic lasted, therefore, they still enjoyed the privilege of trading freely abroad, and the peculiar one of importing their goods into England free of customs.

Virginia, with the West India colonies of England, adhering to the Royal cause, a fleet was sent out by Parliament, in 1652, to compel their submission. Commissioners were also sent, one of whom was Clayborne, to rearrange the government of Virginia. That colony submitted, under an agreement granting a complete amnesty, and by which they were promised along with some political rights, a trade as free as that of England. It is worthy of remark, that the maxim of Parliament, that it had the right to control the colonies in all cases, and which afterwards led to their *Revolution*

tion, was, at this time, the *liberal* doctrine, in antagonism to that which deposited a like power solely with the crown. The whole question of the political colonial policy of England, both in that country and the colonies, turned upon this point, no other than these two theories being at all brought into view, and the colonists themselves most readily subscribing to the claim of the Parliament.

Bancroft contends that this Navigation Law was never enforced, nor intended to be, in regard to Virginia or the other colonies, and our historians agree that the compact of surrender by the former was faithfully observed by the Commonwealth. That some *attempt*, however, was made to enforce the act, in some particulars, at least, is evident, from the fact stated by Bancroft himself, that in 1656, the government of Virginia presented to Cromwell a remonstrance upon the subject. But this did not interrupt the unlimited free trade of that colony, and finally, with the tacit consent of Cromwell, or taking advantage of his inattention, the assembly of the colony passed an act, *throwing open their Commerce to all the world*.

In 1652, the second forge was set up in New England, at Raynham, twenty miles southeast of Boston.

The same year, the Massachusetts General Court, established a *Mint* at Boston to coin shillings, sixpences and threepences, of the fineness of English sterling silver, but of less weight by "two-pence in the shilling valew than the English coyne." A law was enacted to prevent any other than this and English coin from circulating in the colony. On the Restoration, this mint was declared an invasion of the royal prerogative; yet it continued in operation over thirty years, and issued a considerable amount. Its emissions were known as the "Pine-Tree currency," from the device upon them. All this coinage bore throughout the unchanged date of 1652.

New Amsterdam, having a population of about 1,000, received in 1652, an act of incorporation, the government passing from the hands of the Dutch West India Company to those of a Schoat, Burgomasters, and Schepens.

Tobacco being considerably grown in England, in spite of all existing prohibitions, obstructing the sale of that of Virginia to some extent, and thereby lessening the amount of duties received by the government from that source, Parliament, upon a loud complaint from the Virginia planters, in 1652, passed an act absolutely interdicting the culture in England. This act was in 1654 rigorously enforced by Cromwell.

In 1654, a civil war occurred in Maryland, arising from the subversion by the commissioners sent to Virginia in 1652, of Baltimore's government in the former colony. The old affair of Clayborne was hereupon revived, and Parliament, upon a re-examination, condemned the former course of Baltimore towards him, and confirmed the acts of the commission. Baltimore, however, professing himself to be now a Republican, assiduously courted Cromwell, and was allowed to re-establish the proprietary. The civil war, however, continued, by occasional outbreaks, until the restoration of Charles.

Estimated population of New England in 1654: Massachusetts, 16,026; Plymouth, 2,941; Connecticut, 3,186; Rhode Island, 1,959. The total, 24,112.

In retaliation of the outrage of the Swedes upon the Delaware settlements, Stuyvesant, governor of New Amsterdam, in 1655, reduced their whole plantation, giving the occupants honorable terms, who mostly remained. Gustavus and his great ministers were dead, and Sweden was no longer formidable under the weak Christina. Thus ended Swedish dominion within the United States.

The Virginia legislature changed the Spanish piece of eight from 6s. to 5s. sterling, as the standard of its currency.*

By a treaty with Sweden, in 1656, Cromwell granted among other privileges, that not conceded to any other country, to trade with America, so far as the Lord Protector's affairs would admit.

In 1657 the Virginia Legislature forbid the export of sheep and mares.

In 1658 the first wharf was built at New Amsterdam by the bugmasters where Whitehall-street now is.†

An act passed the Virginia Legislature in 1659, for encouraging the manufacture of Silk, designing to make it a staple of export, but like all other such attempts, it failed of the desired effect.

1660. The exports of New Hampshire up to this period consisted of fish and furs, the latter obtained at the trading houses on her rivers. Timber, especially masts, now became a leading article, and for about a century her forests supplied most of the white pine masts for the English navy.

Although the statutory proceedings of the Commonwealth were repudiated on the restoration, yet it was deemed that some wisdom had been displayed in the Interruption which was worthy of being embalmed in the forms of legitimate law. What had been secured to the power, wealth, and dominion of Britain must be preserved, even though a spurious legislation was the apparent means of its attainment. To curb the Dutch yet further, to protect the English interests at home against them, and root out of the colonies the merchants and factors of that nation who had "nestled themselves among our people there," the navigation act, with such amendments as seemed required, was re-enacted. The colonists had now "got able to stand upon their own legs." New England furnished a respectable export, but Virginia in her tobacco, and Barbadoes, through her sugar, ginger, cotton, &c., had still more risen to the dignity of profitable possessions.‡

"It was now deemed high time," says Anderson, "to secure to ourselves alone these increasing benefits which had been produced at our sole charge and trouble. And in this respect, Spain had long before set us a just and laudable example." The balance of "charge and trouble," properly estimated, was certainly much on the side of the colonists themselves; and it was, or would be now regarded, a poor justification of any measure of colonial policy that *Spain* had been the power to offer the example.

Among the provisions of the Navigation Act of 1660, it was declared that "No sugar, tobacco, cotton, wool, indigo, ginger, fustic, or other dyeing-woods, of the growth or manufacture of our Asian, African, or American colonies, shall be shipped from the said colonies to any place but England, Ireland, or to some other of his majesty's said plantations." And all

* Cromwell's fleet conquered Jamaica, from the Spaniards in 1655, bringing it thus into the relation of a sister colony to the other colonies of England, one every way preferable to them to that of its Spanish dependence. An attempt upon Havana failed. England had now established permanent and respectable colonial possessions in the West Indies, a success which was of no small moment in a commercial view, to her continental colonies.

† The French, in 1653, established themselves in Hayti, till now held exclusively by Spain. They also settled St. Vincent's. The Dutch were expelled from Brazil.

‡ Canada was at this time in a wretched condition. The company neglected the colony, and at last gave up the *fur trade* for the seignorial acknowledgement of 1,000 beaver skins. Quebec was in siege by the relentless Iroquois.

The population of Martinico, settled by the French in 1635, was in 1658 about 10,000 French and as many negroes and Indians. It produced in 1658, 10,000 hhds. sugar, besides ginger, pimento, cocon, cassia.

§ Barbadoes had become rich and populous at this time. Many had realized fortunes there equal to those of noblemen, who had gone out poor. Over 100 sail of ships found employment there yearly in transporting goods and passengers.

vessels sailing to the plantations were made to give bonds to carry the said commodities only to the places thus permitted. The articles specified in this prohibition were called *enumerated articles*; other articles of colonial produce or manufacture, in which trade to other ports was permitted still, were called *non-enumerated articles*. Salted-fish, train-oil, and whale-fins, not caught or cured by English or Irish, nor imported in English vessels, (the colonies being among those excluded,) were to pay double alien customs. None but natural born or naturalized subjects were allowed to be merchants or factors in the colonies, under forfeiture of goods and chattels. Sundry duties were also laid on the trade to and from the colonies, which was thus for the first time subjected to direct taxation. The colonies could send their products to Great Britain only in British vessels, three-fourths of their crews being English seamen, and none but their own products could be sent thither by any means whatever.

Compared with this act the restrictions upon colonial Commerce provided by that of 1651 were very mild. The colonies were greatly alarmed. They all regarded it as most unreasonably oppressive, and Massachusetts declared it to be in direct contravention of her chartered rights and privileges. The assemblies of other colonies pronounced it entirely outrageous. What increased the discontent, was the evident design to carry it into rigid execution. Charles, almost immediately upon his restoration, had made some manifestations of his temper toward the colonies, which were not particularly calculated to please them. The palmy days of Cromwell's administration were over for them. Privileges granted them by that warm friend were withdrawn, and the parliament was now quite ready to second the plans of the king to reduce them to a more dependent condition.

The colonists expected that some extraordinary means would be adopted to ensure such effective execution to the Navigation Act, as the government proclaimed its intention to maintain. They probably looked for the establishment of all the agencies of a general revenue system such as existed in England herself. Of all this restrictive and burdensome machinery the colonies were yet free—there were no custom-houses, no fortifications for guarding the harbors, except some little means of defence prepared by the colonists for their own benefit alone, and not in any wise to assist the revenue and restrictive purposes of the English government, and no regular cruisers provided to maintain surveillance of the coast. The execution of all acts of parliament or royal edicts intended to regulate affairs within the colonies, was left entirely to the hands of a governor, often a resident of the colony over which he presided, and generally associated with the people in interest, and to the representatives of the people themselves, upon whose action and sentiments that of the governor was in a great degree, and almost of necessity dependent.

This state of things could be expected to continue only during the extreme weakness of the colonies, as a considerate regard of their situation and an encouragement of their growth. As they were now expanding into consequence and acquiring ability of their own, it was not likely, under any circumstances of political affairs in England, that the system of *leaving alone* could be permitted much longer to endure. It was true their charters, to the provisions of which they so pertinaciously adhered, seemed to them immunities, explicit and constructive, which the present designs of the home government might be fairly considered to violate. But those charters were never meant to be *perpetual*. They were not at all adapted to maintenance

as the basis of relations between the mother country and the dependency, after the attainment of any considerable magnitude by the latter. New systems and new relations from that time become necessary for the interests of both. It could, surely, in no case be supposed that England would have set such an example of excessive liberality to all countries holding colonial possessions, as to voluntarily forego any desire of revenue as well as of some commercial profit not enjoyed by other nations, in regard to hers. Such, liberality, indeed, maintained at least for a period considerably beyond that at which England deemed her colonies fit for taxation and a more exclusive commercial system, would have enured more to her own advantage in the end. But the theory of giving for the sake of increase was, as regards all political and commercial affairs, but little understood at that time in any nation. Her own direct and exclusive profit was the only idea of England in her efforts hitherto for the establishment and progress of colonies anywhere, and she could have seen no possible motive for the maintenance of a barren, and in the best view, a costly dominion over these foreign territories.

The intelligence was soon received that all the North American Colonies were to be united under a single governor general, a scheme in which was plainly seen the design of so bringing all the colonies into one system, that the necessary agencies for the effective and universal execution of the Navigation and other subsequent acts of the British government might be more readily introduced. But this project, constantly in the mind of Charles, was by the efforts of the colonists and their friends delayed until 1686. They were informed, also, that their trade with each other and with the West Indies, so great an element in the prosperity of New England, especially, was to be cut off. Massachusetts was excited by projects so abhorrent to a bold stand, and even undertook preparations, youthful as the colony then was, for a forcible defence of her rights.

Whatever plans might have been contemplated for the enforcement in America of the Navigation Act, were defeated by causes which required the attention elsewhere of the English government. It was not that the disposition to enforce it to the utmost had at all abated. Charles maintained his purpose with a zeal quite unusual to his negligent disposition. The government was mainly supported in this scheme, and indeed in the whole commercial portion of its colonial system, by both whigs and tories. Even the merchants of England being there infected with the same idea actuating the government relative to the advantages derivable from monopolies, wherever possible, seconded its policy with all their influence. There could be said to be but one opinion in England upon the subject, so that it was not merely the offspring of a tyrant's will. The colonial legislatures poured in their earnest petitions and remonstrances, borne by weighty deputations of their citizens, but without effect. Virginia sent Governor Berkeley, a staunch royalist and a favorite of Charles, to plead its cause. His efforts were zealous. He urged to the monarch that the condition of that colony was very low already, from the depression in the price of Tobacco, their only exportable commodity. They could ill afford, he said, the £40,000 which the existing monopoly of that article cost them, and which served only to enrich a few English merchants. He urged also that while the turbulent New Englanders hesitated not to evade or even openly disregard the regulations complained of, the loyal Virginians submitted, and became the victims of their obedience. But Charles was immovable. What argument could not dissuade him from, was prevented by affairs of peculiar urgency at home

—the troubles in England, the plague and fire in London, and the European war.

The execution of the Navigation Act in America was left to the existing colonial authorities, with all the lack of means at their command, before specified. Under the strict charges committed to them, they at first entered upon their duties with an appearance of some alacrity and decision. Of course the law, although occasioning serious annoyance at first, and not without injury to the colonial trade, even when most loosely administered, was easily evaded. The authorities, finding themselves so powerless, or the efforts required of them so onerous, soon relaxed their vigilance and allowed things to take a great deal their natural course, and even connived with the colonists to evade the law.

When this state of things came to be understood in England, busy as the government was, a decided effort was made to effect a reformation. A royal mandate was issued reprimanding the conduct of the colonial authorities, forts were erected at the mouths of the principal rivers, and armed vessels were sent to cruise along the coast. These measures, though referring to all, seem to have been particularly directed against the Virginians, who thinking the loyalty which they had maintained at heart throughout even the time of the Protectorate, entitled to something better than was awarded to the New Englanders, who loved democracy from principle, were highly incensed on finding themselves included in the same category with these seditious. They accordingly followed the example now of the latter, from whom disobedience was, so far as it could be safely carried, expected as a matter of course. In Virginia such conduct was a change of sentiment, and drew, therefore, more attention. That colony, however, still contrived to carry on a clandestine trade with the Dutch at New Amsterdam and with other places, and as some retaliation of the injuries inflicted upon them, enacted that in the payment of debts, claimants within Virginia should have the preference over English creditors.

The Navigation Act, in its remodeled and perfected form of 1660, became the most important branch of the commercial code of Britain. To its operation, extraordinary effects upon the prosperity of that nation have been ascribed, and to the present time, although the veneration once indulged toward the law and its accessories has considerably abated, it is still very commonly spoken of with extreme laudation. That its influence in some direction was very great, cannot be doubted any more than that the placing of a great obstruction in the midst of the channel of a river will affect the motion of its tide. The palpable facts upon which the eulogy of the law is based, is that the Commerce, wealth, and power of England from that time rose very rapidly, while that of Holland decreased. It is evident, however, that England had before this time taken a remarkable start, and was approaching the results attributed to the Navigation Act long before it had any existence. An awakened spirit of energy, an advancing civilization, intelligence, and ability of action, an elevated ambition had been long conspicuous, and the movement she was making was only a little in advance of that in which nearly all Europe partook, and which did not cease or seem to be delayed, wherever it had appeared, in consequence of England withdrawing the benefit of her trade as much within herself as possible, as should in regard to some nations have been the case, had that exclusiveness been the cause of England's subsequent prosperity. As for Holland, she had before attained the summit of her prosperity. She had made the most of her few resour-

ces, and had built up a fabric which rested in a great degree upon an artificial system. She could not but sink in the scale of nations whenever the rest of Europe began any tolerable development of their resources.

The tendency of the navigation Act and of the various other enactments amendatory or supplementary thereto, was to force and confine the Commerce, both of England and the colonies, in a *single direction*, toward each other. They were liable to become thus—and did in a degree which would have been much greater had the spirit of the measure taken complete effect—too far dependent upon each other. The monopoly, so far as possible of the colonial products, produced perhaps in favor of England some uncertain advantages of cheapness, while their attempted monopoly of the supply of the colonial market tended, apparently, to raise the price of their own exports. But both profits were fictitious, as the seeming gain was in many ways far more than over balanced. In shutting out the colonists from foreign markets and reducing the value of their products, their ability to purchase English goods or to contribute revenue to England, and the rate of their general progress in wealth, power, and all the qualities which make colonies really valuable, were correspondingly limited. While excluding other nations from the benefit of a free trade with herself and her colonies, she could not expect to continue to enjoy such freedom with them and their colonies. Retaliatory acts were adopted, and thus what was gained in the market of America was lost in other directions, at least until she had been able to break down the barriers raised against her. One effect was to strengthen the bond of seclusion which Spain had thrown around the lucrative trade of her wealthy colonies, and to prevent England the opportunity she might afterward have reasonably taken, at the conclusion of her frequent wars, to have asked as a right, and even to have enforced upon that power, the opening of her colonies to the trade of England and the world, a result which would have been of incalculable benefit to both England and America. The voice of Europe would gladly have sustained England in such a demand, and Spain would have had no alternative but submission. The adherence of England, at that time, to the cause of commercial freedom, would have broken up every vestige of the restrictive system, and have placed the world centuries ahead of its present position. Her support of the principle of selfishness, confirmed and solidified that unnatural system, until it became so extensive and indurated that it seemed almost destined to be perpetual. So much is the world indebted to England for a system that has tended to multiply the causes of national dissension, and to keep mankind at continual war.

The protection of the navigating interest of England, singly, at once disturbed the balance of things in England, and gave a one-sided aspect to its internal concerns. The interests unfavorably affected, demanded, and were of necessity allowed, a corresponding protection, not at first designed, certainly, for no one can suppose that the whole extent of the system, with its process of eternal amendment for the purpose of restoring the balance it had destroyed, was in the minds of its original projectors; nor even can any one suppose, they would have at all commenced, had the end been before their view. The landlords obtaining an equivalent protection to that afforded the merchants, in the Corn Laws, the increase in the price of bread far more than neutralized again the gain to the nation through the navigating interest, although the merchants had this advantage, that the burden of the equivalent for *their* protection given the landholders fell not upon them-

selves exclusively, but was shared in by the whole people. The manufacturers were protected, for the same reason and with the same result. The perpetual balancing by strips and slices of protection distributed here and there as the scales may chance to vibrate, have never restored that equilibrium which existed under a natural system, and never can. Every attempt, in this mode to equalize the varying interests, only disturbs the balance more and more. The protected classes have been, indeed, benefited—the merchants, the manufacturers, the landholders, and capitalists generally—but the causes of their undue prosperity have created a *great pauper population*, bound even more strongly than were the blacks of their West India or North American colonies, in a slavery far more abject. Their protective system has built up many splendid commercial and manufacturing cities, but it has ruptured the natural organization of society. The hot-bed growth of their cities has been effected by severing the natural associations of industry. As Adam Smith says: "The inland or home trade, the most important of all, the trade in which an equal capital affords the greatest profit, and creates the greatest employment of the country, was considered as subsidiary only to the foreign trade." The manufacturer was separated from the farmer, where nature had placed him, to be associated with the shipper. Agriculture, which should be held the most profitable pursuit and the basis of all, was detached and put in a secondary position, that Commerce and manufactures might hold an unnatural position in front. After all the attempts to balance the account of the agriculturist, by the remunerative Corn Laws, for securing him the home market, the discouragement of his pursuit was the basis of the system. The arrangement of town and country in England is, as Smith declares, entirely unnatural, and necessarily involves social disease.

Such were the benefits which the system secured to England. Upon the colonies, to whom in reality the great weight of its disadvantages was offered, the effect, if less radical and extensive, because less thoroughly carried into practice, and because of the better ability of a young, growing, extensive, and naturally wealthy country to resist its influence, was yet very decided. The Navigation Act, of itself could, under the circumstances, exert but a very limited effect; but the acts which were afterwards adopted, in the course of the balancing operation in England, as the necessary equivalent to other interests, of the attempted favor toward English shipping by the destruction of American, were more easily put in operation, and though not in all cases fully upheld, yet were not without being felt as retarding influences upon our progress. It is true we were not at that time prepared for entering to any great extent into manufactures, the object against which the restrictive care of England was particularly directed, and this circumstance again lessened the effect of the acts of discouragement; but there were *some* branches of manufacture, we had better advantages for pursuing, even then, than England herself enjoyed, and which it was necessary or proper for us to establish. The inhibition of these, of course, was the occasion of much inconvenience, and served, so long as it was maintained, as a constant drawback upon our prosperity. The grievances suffered from the restrictive system, by the colonies, eventuated in what should have been foreseen from the outset, the separation of the colonies from the mother country. Such was the final result to England of the application to her colonies of a false commercial system, borrowed, though it must be admitted in a mitigated form, from the policy of Spain.

Tea was in 1660, first introduced into Great Britain from China, being sold at 60s. a pound.

In 1661, a treaty occurred between Portugal and Holland, securing the neutrality of their American possessions in regard to any difficulties between those countries in Europe. This was the second European treaty containing such a provision, the first having been between Spain and Holland, in 1648.

In 1662, an edict was adopted in Virginia, requiring each poll to raise annually and manufacture six pounds of *linen thread*. A change of laws and cessation of the bounties caused the culture of flax, however, to decline.

Parliament, in 1662, mainly for the encouragement of colonial trade with England, passed an act, that no sort of wine but Rhenish, no sort of spicery, grocery, *tobacco, potashes, pitch, tar, salt, resin, deal boards, fir timber, or olive oil*, should be imported from the Netherlands or Germany.

As negroes enough for servants and laborers for the English plantations, were not obtained, to remedy the deficiency, Parliament this year established a third exclusive English African or Guinea company, at the head of which was the Duke of York, the king's brother, and afterwards occupant of the throne as James II. This company undertook to supply the West India colonies with 3,000 negroes annually.

Maryland in 1662, set up a mint, the second in the United States. Its coinage was of equal weight and value with English.

Adventurers from the North American Colonies commenced *cutting log-wood* on the uninhabited coasts in the Bay of Campeachy, and that vicinity. Settlements were soon made by these cutters at Cape Catoche first, and afterward at the Laguna de Terminos, which was more convenient. Thus did the American colonists introduce England to a valuable privilege, which she still maintains.*

Charles, wishing to encourage the growth of the infant colonies of Connecticut and Rhode Island, and having no malfeasances to allege against them, granted them, at their solicitation, the former in 1662, the latter in 1663, the most liberal charters yet given to any of the English plantations in America. That to Rhode Island stipulated to all British subjects entire freedom of the fishery of the New England coast, bays, salt-water rivers, &c., and the use by the fishermen of any waste lands for erecting wharves, stages, and buildings necessary for the pursuit. To encourage the *whale* fishery, the inhabitants of Rhode Island were given liberty, having struck a whale or other great fish, to pursue it into any bay, river, cove, creek, or shore of New England. Encouragement was promised for the discovery of fishing banks in or about the colony's limits. Trade and Commerce with the other colonies was declared free to them, any inhibition of the former being declared nugatory.

A charter was also granted to Lord Clarendon and others, in 1663, for effecting settlements within Carolina. A colony had been established at Cape Fear River, about 1660, of emigrants from New England, who, finding the Indians hostile, abandoned their settlement in 1663. Some emigrants had already entered from Virginia, and more were now induced; some ship-builders were also brought from Bermudas, Commerce being a leading part

* 1663. Imports of England, £4,016,019; exports, £2,023,812. There were now but six stage-coaches in England.

of their plan, and a settlement was established on the Chowan, at Albemarle Sound.

The Navigation Act was amended in 1663. The amendment prohibited the importation into any English colonies in any part of the world, except Tangier, of any commodities, the growth, production, or manufacture of Europe, unless it were shipped from England, Wales, or the town of Berwick-upon-Tweed, (Scotland,) in English-built vessels, and carried directly to the colonies. From the prohibition were excepted salt for the fisheries of New England and Newfoundland, wines from Madeira and the Azores, and all sorts of victual, servants, and horses, from Scotland and Ireland. It enacted, also, that none of the products of the colonies should be carried to any foreign port, until first landed in England. This provision deprived the colonies of, or much restricted the benefit of their free trade in *non-enumerated articles* of the act of 1660. A drawback of the duties paid by foreign goods in England was, however, generally allowed on their exportation thence to the colonies. The design of the act was to monopolize totally the carriage for America in her outward trade, both of exports and imports.

This act struck out Ireland from an equality with England in her commercial regulations, as included in the act of 1660. Ireland had before this no foreign trade and sought none, satisfied with her free intercourse with England. She was now made, commercially, "as completely a foreign nation as France," and was obliged to seek Commerce elsewhere, and to endeavor the establishment of manufactures. Her exports to the colonies hereafter were some increased.

The same act provided also, that "forasmuch as the planting of tobacco in England doth continually increase," in spite of the former act, a penalty additional of £10 on every rood or pole planted with it in England, Ireland, &c., should be laid, allowing, however, the "physic gardens" of the University one half-pole of tobacco to each garden.

Parliament in 1663 laid the tax called the *four-and-a-half per cent duty*, which existed for a long time, upon all dead produce exported from the British sugar islands, except Jamaica and the "ceded islands." It was receivable *in kind*.*

In 1664, Charles granted to his brother, the Duke of York, the region between the Kennebec and St. Croix Rivers, in Maine, claimed by the French, and that from the Connecticut to the Delaware, claimed and partly occupied by the Dutch. The Duke at once undertook the conquest of the latter, although England and Holland were at peace. The Dutch West India Company had, by the grant of entire religious freedom, secured the migration to this colony of a considerable number of the oppressed Protestants from almost all parts of Europe; and the fine climate and fertile soil had allured also many New Englanders, who had flocked in such numbers, indeed, as to form entire villages, and to give political tone to the colony—the Dutch and other settlers readily catching the infection of their principles

* France, as well as Great Britain, had turned her attention seriously to advancing the means of her strength. Colbert, the able minister of Louis XIV. from 1663 to 1672, undertook to advance French Commerce and manufactures by an enlarged system of bounties, immunities, premiums, protections, &c., offered to foreign artificers, manufacturers, &c., to induce their migration to France. The Royal Council of Commerce was established in 1662, in which the king himself presided once every fortnight.

A French settlement was made in 1663, for the fisheries, at St. John's Island, (now Prince Edward's,) and another at Cayenne, in Guiana, where the Dutch were expelled. These settlements were both effected by commercial companies, chartered for such object.

of anti-taxation, self-government, and free Commerce. "To augment the variety, the company introduced as many negro-slaves as they conveniently could. The chief settlement thus became, as it was styled by its people, "a blended city of various lineage," or, as Mr. Bancroft says, a city of the world, a character which it maintains yet, and is likely forever to hold. It numbered then about 1,500 inhabitants. The dispute between the settlers and agents of the company, about the right of taxation without the consent of the former, indisposed them to defend the company's rights, and the colony thus fell a voluntary prey to the fleet and army of the Duke of York. The terms granted were very liberal; the private property of the population was guaranteed to them, but that of the Dutch West India Company was confiscated. The city at this time consisted of low houses, handsomely built of brick and stone, occupying a few streets.

Colbert, the French minister, had entered upon a vigorous scheme of simultaneous colonization in America, Africa, and the East Indies. In 1664 were organized an exclusive East India Company, for fifty years, on the ruins of a China company, and an exclusive West India Company for forty years. To the first was assigned everything not embraced within the Atlantic Ocean. Of the latter the limits were, first, the part of South America between the Amazon and the Orinoco Rivers, with adjacent islands; second, in North America, all of Canada, with the great interior region behind the *English colonies*, and *Florida*; third, all the coasts of Africa, from Cape de Verde to the Cape of Good Hope. The crown, repurchasing from individuals, by whom they had been before purchased of itself, the islands of Guadeloupe and its dependencies for 125,000 livres, Martinique for 40,000 livres, Granada for 100,000 livres, and all the purchase of Matthe for 500,000 livres, consigned thereupon to the West India Company the monopoly of the whole Commerce and agriculture of the French settlements in North America, the Antilles, Guiana, and Africa, with extraordinary immunities and privileges, money being even advanced to them by the government. No duties were to be laid on the trade between France and the company's possessions. This grand company, however, as it was tolerably certain to do, mismanaged its affairs, its agents blundered and defrauded it, the Dutch and English smugglers absorbed in a great degree the business of supplying their West India colonies, war subjected them to heavy losses, and finally their concerns were thrown into irretrievable confusion.

In 1665 there were in Massachusetts Bay 120 vessels of 20 to 100 tons, and twelve ships of above 100 tons. About this time the inhabitants of that colony commenced building ships for *English agents*, and the business was continued up to the Revolution. The vessels were fastened with trunnels of wood, iron being too scarce and expensive, and very little of it used in any way. What was indispensable was obtained mostly from England, although that country was unable to satisfy her own demand, and imported great amounts from Sweden, &c. Massachusetts was the first colony to give direct encouragement to the mechanic arts, and was now, as always up to the Revolution, far ahead in these branches of all the sister colonies. The progress of shipbuilding of course stimulated the growth of a host of dependent trades—carpenters, joiners, sawyers, sail-makers, caulkers, smiths, riggers, mast, spar, and block makers, painters, &c.

Virginia, at this time and before, as well as Barbadoes, alone of the English colonies in America, exported produce to a larger value than that of the

goods imported. In Maryland the same evil was suffered as in Virginia from the low price of tobacco; but they bore it with more philosophy than their neighbors, making no foolish efforts to restrain the quantity of the product, or to remedy otherwise by law the effect of over-production, and of the monopoly in England. The duties exacted by Lord Baltimore upon their tobacco also pressed heavily upon the Maryland planters. A warm controversy ensued in relation to this proprietary tax, between Charles and Baltimore. The Maryland tobacco was preferred, as being finer than that of Virginia. The population of Maryland, in 1665, was about 16,000.

Father Allouez, a French Jesuit from Canada, in 1665, passed the Straits of Mackinaw in a canoe, entered Lake Superior, and established a mission among the Chippewas (within Michigan.)

A second settlement was made in North Carolina, at the abandoned site of the New England settlement, by emigrants from Barbadoes.

1666. Massachusetts was summoned to send deputies to England to answer certain charges, among them that of violating the Navigation Act. That colony disobeyed, but to conciliate the king, gratuitously furnished supplies to the English fleet in the West Indies, and purchased a *ship-load of masts* as a present to the king—a gift of no small consideration at that particular period.*

Maine comprised, in 1667, a few small fishing settlements at Casco (Portland,) and Sagadahock, and scattered stations within the Duke of York's patent at Pemaquid, Matinicus, Mohegan, &c. Castine, on the east side of Penobscot Bay, was settled by the French in 1667. Beside the cod fishery on the coasts of Maine, the people of Massachusetts obtained there great quantities of beaver and other peltry.

In 1667 England concluded, by treaties of peace at Breda, her war with France, Spain, and Holland. With Spain and Holland, the *uti-possidetis*, (viz., that each was to keep what it held at the time of negotiating,) was made the basis of the treaties. The Dutch had taken Surinam from the English, which was regarded as an equivalent for the loss of the New Netherlands. With Spain it was also agreed, as between Holland and Spain before, quoting the words of that treaty, that the subjects of neither should sail to, or trade in the American possessions of the other. To France, England ceded her conquest of Nova Scotia, (containing only a few unpromising French settlements, numbering a few hundred fishermen and peltry dealers,) admitting also the claim of the French of the extension of that region to the Pentaguet or Penobscot. The people of Massachusetts were exceedingly discontented with the retrocession in all its aspects, and especially so with the surrender accompanying it of the large part of what is now the State of Maine, which they contended was an entirely new grant of territory never before possessed by France. They continued, however, after the peace, to trade with the French and Indians at the latter region for beaver skins and other commodities, and openly maintained their fisheries still on the same coast. Some few years after, Mons. Le Bouva, the French governor there, on the allegation of some affront from the govern-

* 1665—Great plague in London. 1666—Great fire in London; 13,300 houses destroyed. The fire and pestilence were great shocks to English Commerce.

In 1666, the English took Tortola, W. I., from the Dutch, and themselves abandoned St. Lucia, purchased of the Caribs in 1664, as unfit for colonization, upon which the French again took possession of it, though England did not renounce her claim.

ment of Massachusetts, prohibited any trade with the English colonists, and imposed a tax of 400 codfish each upon their vessels resorting there to fish, seizing their fish and provisions upon refusal of payment.

Upon the peace, most of the English bucaneeers who had swarmed in the West India seas during the war, settled at Laguna de Terminos, in Honduras, for the purpose of cutting logwood. The Spaniards had cut some logwood at Campeachy, but were obliged to abandon their settlement from the interruption of the bucaneeers in the war. The places now occupied as settlements for logwood cutting by the English, were Laguna de Terminos and Trist and Beef Islands. The bucaneeers found settlers from New England already in these places, and joined with them. A great many of the bucaneeers themselves were undoubtedly from that section. These settlements were now so much increased, that great quantities of logwood were cut and sent to Jamaica and New England.

The Massachusetts General Court, in 1668, enacted an order, reserving for public use all white pine trees of twenty-four inches diameter at three feet high from the ground, in that colony, embracing then New Hampshire as well as Maine.

The people of New York had not obtained the advantages they hoped from English dominion. The patronly policy avowed by their proprietor was to tax them so much, that they should have time to think of nothing but how to find the means of paying the taxes. He chose agents well adapted to carry out his wise system of breaking down the province and destroying, as far as possible, all its value; and evinced his manly indignation at the flagrant sedition of his subjects in daring to remonstrate against his proceedings, by burning their addresses.

Dablou and Marquette established another French mission and trading establishment among the Indians of the western country, at St. Mary's Falls, between Lakes Superior and Huron. This important point became a leading station of the French fur trade into the fur upper regions. In the course of their explorations hereabout, these active missionaries heard of the great river *Mes-cha-cha-be*, or, as called by some tribes, *Mississippi*—a name signifying the Father of Waters. The idea of the long-sought western passage to India by this stream was at once revived. It was believed the story of the Indians conveyed the knowledge of that desired avenue; and if it were otherwise, it was a river of such magnitude, that its possession could not but be regarded as a matter of the first importance, at a time when France was extending her claims in North America to so vast a breadth, and laying plans for the establishment there of a colonial empire to rival, or even engulf that of England.

ART. III.—COMMERCE WITH THE CANADAS, AND WITH THE BRITISH NORTH AMERICAN COLONIES.*

OF COMMERCE—HISTORY OF THE COLONIAL SYSTEM—ERA OF WALKER—NAVIGATION LAWS—STATE OF THE TRADE—CANADA AND THE LOWER PROVINCES—THE COMMERCE OF CANADA—EFFECTS ON THE SOUTHERN STATES—EFFECTS ON THE WEST—THE NAVIGATION OF THE ST. LAWRENCE—EFFECTS ON NEW ENGLAND—CONCLUSION, ETC.

ON COMMERCE.

I SHALL endeavor to call your attention to one of the great practical questions of the day, that has been less discussed than its merits demand; and which, in the present aspect of affairs, is likely for the next few years to occupy much of public attention.

I have said that it is a public, not a political question, that it refers to our material prosperity rather than to our merely intellectual advancement; and as it concerns our foreign relations also, those who would consider of its importance must look well to its practical bearing on our politics and our business relations. We live here, gentlemen, on the barren soil of New England, depending upon our industry for the means of life; blasting our rugged rocks, felling the stately pines upon our mountain side, or by perseverance and frugality gathering from the earth a scanty return of fruits for our support. The energy of our people has sought all means of sustenance—our rivers have been yoked up with dams, and are only permitted to flow on towards the ocean on the condition that they work for our support as they obey the laws of gravitation. Our hardy sons search the waters of the world for fish that will yield food or oil for the comfort of man. Dr. Franklin well said that "he who draws up a fish, draws up a piece of silver." Our busy Commerce spreads its white wings and drives a thriving exchange of commodities with all the nations of the earth. The resistless power of steam whirls the swift wheel and speeds the carriage of freight and passengers over our hundred iron roads. Our mechanics toil to supply the necessities of life and the luxuries of civilization to the barbarous and uncivilized inhabitants of other countries, as well as to the civilized of earth's nations. Our halls of learning are devoted to educate chosen bands to go forth as teachers of civilization, of religion, of literature, among our sister States. The votaries of science exhaust the knowledge of the world and the combinations of the intellect, in the desire to explore the laws of nature and extend the realm of knowledge. The pale inventor, careless of wealth, emulous of fame and good, absorbs his whole mind and time in endeavors to apply each new discovery of science to the practical good of man, through the mechanic arts.

Nature seems the only bar to our progress in knowledge and wealth, far beyond that of any other people that have ever lived upon the earth: though man has done much, she has done but little. Within our limits no rich mines yield a bounteous supply of labor. We are destitute of coal fields, that real source of the great prosperity of England and of our Middle States. No great rivers, like the Mississippi and the St. Lawrence, bear up-

* We have great pleasure in laying before the readers of the *Merchants' Magazine*, the following Lecture on "the advantages to New England of Reciprocity with the Canadas and the British North American Colonies," by CHARLES LEVI WOODBURY, Esq., U. S. Commissioner. In a note to the editor of this Magazine, Mr. WOODBURY says: "I have revised and extended it a little beyond its original size, so as to embrace the bearing of the question on other than the New England section of the country." We commend it to the attention of our readers generally.—*Ed. Mer. Mag.*

on their bosoms to us a Commerce more enriching than the deposits of the Nile. Our resources are drawn from a great distance, and the cost increased by freights far above what it is in more favored climes. Our coal, brought from the mountains of Pennsylvania, Maryland, and Virginia. Our wheat and beef from the prairies of Ohio and Illinois; our cotton from the far South; our wool from the antipodes; our iron from the mountains of Pennsylvania or of Wales.

Our prosperity has depended upon our industry and our intellect. Great as has been our progress, and vast as the accumulated products of our industry are, we cannot forget or overlook the fact that other States of this Union, better situated than ourselves with regard to the great channels of communication to our various markets, endowed with cheaper supplies of coal, iron, and food, requiring less shelter and clothing for defence from a rude winter, are growing most rapidly, and entering into competition dangerous to our foreign interests in our home markets.

My inquiry is directed to this question:—Whether we have not some natural advantages yet unexplored, by which we can extend our markets for our productions; cheapen to us the cost of raw material, and of production of our manufactures; increase our Commerce and our trade, and enable us to go forward in that triumphant march of civilization, industry, and increase of population, that, so far, has attended our exertions.

Before I proceed further, a short resume of the commercial history of the colonial trade will be interesting, both from its intrinsic usefulness, and that it will show that the statesmen of New England have contended for this measure even so far back as the days of Washington. The illustrious names of Dr. Franklin, Thomas Jefferson, and of John Adams, of Quincy, are guarantees of the political soundness of the question, and leave it, as I first said, purely commercial, and to be decided by the rule of dollars and cents, whether or not we can make money by reciprocity with Canada.

HISTORY OF THE COLONIAL SYSTEM.

Your historical studies make you well acquainted with the general colonial system of Great Britain. After the discovery of America and its settlement, the European powers that had colonies, each established a similar system in effect, that their colonies should be dependent on their mother countries for supplies, and have no intercourse with any other country than her. In effect this prevented the American colonies from manufacturing for themselves, or from engaging largely in ship-building or Commerce; isolating them from the rest of the world—leaving them no trade except to the mother country. Lord Chatham even declared “that we had no right to make even a nail for a horse shoe.” The English system begun by Oliver Cromwell continued till our revolution exempted us from further subjection to it. At this time (1776) we had in the colonies our right to trade with England, with the British West India colonies, and with that part of Europe south of Cape Finisterre. The rest of the world was shut out from us.

The revolution being over, the peace declared, a treaty was to be negotiated respecting our commercial relations with Great Britain, which had been entirely destroyed during the war. The United States desired to get back her lost trade with the British West Indies, then a greater source of wealth than Cuba. In March, 1783, Mr. Pitt, then Chancellor of the Exchequer, proposed a bill “to admit to all the ports of the British dominions, American vessels loaded with goods the growth or produce of these States, on the same terms as British vessels and goods.” This measure was opposed by

the British merchants, and by Lord North, and Mr. Fox, and Lord Sheffield; and at their suggestion the whole power was lodged in the hands of the king and his council, who by an early order, not only excluded American vessels from all participation in the colonial trade, but even forbade our provisions and fish to be carried in British bottoms.

In 1785, our minister, John Adams, on the part of the United States, proposed to the British government to place all the trade between the two countries and their dominions upon a footing of "*perfect and liberal reciprocity*." This was refused at once, Lord Liverpool saying "that it cannot be admitted even as a subject of negotiation." Thus were we cut off from a valuable trade.

Prior to the Revolution, in 1769, the trade of the thirteen colonies stood:

Imports.....	\$18,000,000
Exports.....	12,000,000
Total	25,000,000

Of this whole trade, that with the British West Indies was—

Our exports	8,700,000
Our imports	7,950,000
Total trade	11,650,000

Our own government showed its sense of the injurious conduct of the British, by adopting retaliatory measures, our tariff and our navigation act. A capricious and generally exclusive policy continued, the details of which are unnecessary in this place. Sometimes the necessities of the colonies compelled them to reciprocate with us, usually they endeavored to exclude us entirely.

The mind of man never rests quiet under oppression and tyranny, and new views were dawning even in England as to the benefits of liberal policy in Commerce.

In 1817 we had passed a navigation law as strenuous as the British, offering at the same time to suspend its operations with regard to any power who would treat us with reciprocity.

1822 saw the influence of this measure stimulate Lord Goderich, in parliament, to move upon the question of a liberal colonial policy.

In 1825, that great statesman, Mr. Huskisson, introduced a bill to reform this policy; his measure prevailed, and after much negotiation and further efforts, a reciprocal yielding up of certain of the restrictions upon the Commerce of these northern colonies and ourselves was effected, and—

In 1830, the proclamation of Andrew Jackson and the orders in council of the imperial government, loosened up the restrictive policy, and the long wished for experiment that Mr. Jefferson as Secretary of the Treasury, and Mr. John Adams as minister to England, and Mr. Pitt as Chancellor of the Exchequer, fifty years before had approved and recommended, commenced its trial as a practical thing. But only partially, for these measures were only addressed to the discriminating duties by which England had sought to prevent any direct trade between us and the colonies, and the retaliatory duties that we had levied on the English vessels, the system of annoyance was broken down and a direct trade permitted between us and the colonies.

Yet even this brought relief, and gave renewed vitality to a trade that fifty years of persecution had failed to crush out of existence.

The day was not yet come for "a perfect and liberal reciprocity." On both sides of the Atlantic and on both sides of the St. Lawrence, prejudice,

timidity, conservatism even of wrong, opposed their obstacles. There are but few minds in any age that have the courage and the industry to think well and carefully on any proposition, and the "doubting Thomases" of Commerce and politics stood asking for a sign, yet refusing to try the experiment lest they should be astonished at the result.

Even this little liberality worked wonders; steadily year by year more apparent was the good resulting from the measures of reciprocity, and more ready the mercantile community to become converts to the unmistakable facts developed by the statistics of a growing trade.

ERA OF WALKER—NAVIGATION LAWS—PEEL—PRESENT STATE OF TRADE.

Liberal Policy. The advent of a liberal government in England, (1846) who held to the policy that to secure the cheapest production of manufactures they must cheapen the cost of living, was the sign of a new era in the colonial policy. The distressed state of the English finances induced Sir. Robert Peel to propose throwing the colonies on their own resources, so as to save the heavy appropriations the imperial government had heretofore made for the civil list. Whilst at the same time he proposed the repeal of the corn laws, to provide for the laboring people cheap food; and the country was ready to support his policy.

In the States, at the same time, Mr. Robert J. Walker, a distinguished free trader, held the treasury department and the confidence of Congress, and a liberal commercial measure—the tariff of 1846—simultaneously received the support of the people of the United States.

The concurrence of views of these two great statesman and their governments, the success that attended their measures, led them naturally to pursue further their views of liberalizing the commercial intercourse between the two nations. Thirty years before, (1817,) the United States, in passing her navigation laws, had announced herself ready to adopt reciprocal measures of liberality whenever foreign nations should desire to do the same by us. Now Great Britain, after seventy years of stern monopolizing exclusiveness, was pressed by her commercial and manufacturing interests to do that which Mr. Pitt had vainly struggled for in 1783. 1849 saw the crowning act of the life of Sir Robert Peel—the navigation laws of England repealed. The ships of all the world were permitted to bring to her doors what articles they had for sale. The President of the United States (1850) responded by a proclamation of similar import, and a great chain fell from the limbs of pinioned Commerce. Let us see our statistics:—

COMMERCE OF THE BRITISH NORTH AMERICAN COLONIES AND THE UNITED STATES, 1837.

Imports into United States	\$445,000
Domestic exports from United States.....	2,704,014
Total trade	3,149,014

And we rise until June, 1849, which just precedes the era of the repeal of the navigation laws, when we stand—

Imports to the United States from Canada	\$1,481,083
" " " other colonies	1,345,798
Imports	2,826,880
Domestic exports from United States to Canada.....	\$2,320,323
" " other colonies.....	3,611,783
Total domestic exports.....	5,932,106

Total trade \$8,758,986, or an increase of almost three-fold in this period.

I have said that the navigation laws were repealed in England and suspended in America, and this formed an era in the annals of our Commerce; what were its consequences?

Now burst upon the sight of an astonished world the peaceful struggle for ocean supremacy between the two greatest maritime powers of the globe. The genius of America put forth its might; her Collins steamers, and that mighty fleet of clipper ships, rushed over the blue waters with a speed greater than ever before was reached by craft bearing the triumphant flag of the United States, victorious from the start. Ship-building, Commerce, and manufactures, felt the influence, and on they rush increasing and prospering as never before trade prospered in America. As the mists of prejudice and the broken clouds of error are dispelled, the mind sees clearly the causes which produce this prosperity, and demands another movement towards freedom, that the last clogs that weigh down and oppress this trade shall be broken, that we may have free intercourse with the colonies.

In the course of two years great had been the impetus given to reciprocity by these measures. Canada was prepared for the coming of this liberation of her Commerce from the shackles of the imperial government, the sagacity of the American merchants had foreseen it, and prepared by land and by sea for its approach. The tariff of Canada was reduced to a mere revenue point of $12\frac{1}{2}$ per cent duties on the average. The noble St. Lawrence closed by ice from winter and spring navigation, her merchants and ours had turned their attention towards seeking the ocean in a more genial climate. *Canals and Railroads* to ports where winter with her icy chains was powerless to retard the energies of Commerce; a population of 1,842,265 souls were struggling to find a road to market—a cheap road. The Erie Canal, the Ogdensburgh Railroad, your own Montreal Road, the Atlantic and St. Lawrence road struggled forward for enlargement or completion, to meet the coming Commerce of a great and growing people. See what two years have done:—

In 1851 our domestic exports to Canada were.....	\$5,835,834
“ “ “ other British American colonies....	3,224,558
	<hr/> 9,060,387
Our imports from Canada.....	\$4,956,471
From other British North American colonies.....	1,786,651
	<hr/> 6,692,122

Total trade \$15,752,509, or about double in two years.

In addition to these facts a slight look further into this matter will show how far we have advanced in securing to ourselves a great portion of the trade of our northern neighbors. By the approximations we have made towards a liberal system of reciprocity, not only has our trade with them gone up from 3,000,000 a year in 1827, to 15,000,000 in 1851; but these very communications of Commerce have produced better acquaintance with each other, and more kindly feeling; her statesmen, Hincks and Merritt are as well known to us, though seeking fame in peace, as was the statesman of her rebellion, Mons. Papineau. We cast our eyes upon her trade, our merchants go to her cities in search of customers, our manufacturers study her tastes, and we already rival England in her market to so great an extent, that of the whole foreign trade of Canada, we carry fully one-half, and are ready to compete with our English friends for the other half. 1851—

They ask this as a commercial union. It does not affect or touch the foreign trade of either power. It has in it no political union whatsoever—smacks nothing of annexation. Their political union is with Great Britain; ours is of our thirty-one independent States, leagued simply by our constitution.

Now, who are they, considered as consumers and producers for us, that they should ask this boon? What commercial reasons exist for our considering this proposition? Let me answer briefly.

It will be borne in mind that within the last ten years most extraordinary developments of industry, prosperity, and wealth have taken place amongst our northern neighbors; as our new States on this side of the Mississippi have been filled up with population, the fields for emigration have receded beyond Lake Michigan and now beyond the Mississippi, the fertile lands of Canada West, lying as near to the seaboard as the average of the north-western States, have attracted the enterprise of the emigrant, until their population has doubled within ten years; and if, as is probable, they continue to increase at the same ratio for twenty years, Canada West will sustain a population of at least five millions of people, and Canada East nearly four millions.

The benighted and antiquated system of exclusion that, rendering man's comfort, prosperity, and independence subordinate to the mere political considerations of his government, represses his enterprise and self-reliance, circumscribes his sphere of action, and forces him in the search for his material prosperity to submit to an arbitrary discipline ruinous to his fortunes and capriciously destructive to the progress of national prosperity and civilization, has been broken down by the energy of the Canadians, and her people are now seeking for that larger liberty we have taught them to expect from the ruin of the colonial system of exclusion and subordination that has so long repressed their energies.

They have a population of almost two millions in the Canadas, two-thirds of a million in the other provinces, making almost three millions of people; a vast extent of wild land, good for agriculture, and the increase of the Canadas is at the rate of near 100 per cent in ten years. The great river St. Lawrence, the only outlet of Canada to the ocean, from the high latitude of its mouth is closed by ice nearly six months of the year. Their shortest route to the ocean is through our country by numerous railroads and canals, amongst which ours are the shortest of all. They have few manufactories among them, but are consumers of exactly the character of goods that we do manufacture. They have vast forests of lumber, while ours are nearly exhausted. They have in Nova Scotia and New Brunswick great beds of coal, lying close to tide-water navigation, and cheaply worked. They have vast beds of iron and of plaster; we in New England have none that we can work to a profit. The waters around them teem with valuable fish. Such is the condition of the one side.

They occupy one shore of that chain of lakes and rivers which pierces this continent from the Atlantic almost to the Rocky Mountains, all lying within the northern temperate zone, to which the great body of European as well as American population are fully acclimated. The vast facilities which this route has offered, first for the exploration of the continent by Hennepin and La Salle, then for the adventurous fur-trader, and since the era of our independence for the purposes of Commerce, has spread civilization and agriculture through the prairies of the West.

The magnitude of this Commerce of the lakes can only be conceived when we remember that a recent report to Congress has estimated our share of it at \$326,000,000 of value, represented in 3,971,126 tons of freight, carried by our navigation—74,000 tons of steamers, 138,000 tons of sail-vessels. Its great future increase must depend materially upon the growth and prosperity of our northern neighbors.

The proposition that forms the basis of the new measures of reciprocity may be briefly stated. Availing herself of recently acquired rights and increased freedom, Canada desires that henceforth of the domestic productions of the two people, the raw products of agriculture, the mines, and the forest of each shall be permitted a free access and market in the other country, without any tariff being levied upon them at all by either power, but that such trade in unmanufactured articles shall be free and unrestricted, as it now is between the adjoining States of this Union.

Articles of manufactures are not embraced in this measure of reciprocity, for the reason that Canada, having been abandoned by the British treasury, is compelled to support herself; and being engaged in great works of internal improvements—which will facilitate the trade of both countries, and, indeed, many of which are as necessary to us as to her—is compelled, in order to pay the interest of her loans and support her government, to raise a revenue by a tariff levied upon manufactured articles, of which she is a great consumer. This tariff averages only about half the amount of the duties levied on like articles in the United States, and is purely for revenue purposes. Circumstances have also connected with this matter the question of an extended system of reciprocity with the other provinces of British North America, whose lumber, fish, coal, agricultural, and other produce desires to seek our ports, and whom our quarrels as to our fishing interests and our desire to extend our trade, make it very expedient to have included within the proposed measures.

Although the object of this lecture is to show to the people of New England the importance of these questions, yet their bearing upon the southern and western States commands equal attention, because it offers for all their varied semi-tropical productions a near and almost exclusive market, which will constantly be growing in its capacity and profit to them as producers.

THE COMMERCE OF CANADA.

The wealth of nations consists not only in the fertility of their soil and the activity of their population, but in the foreseeing genius which explores markets, seeks new customers to supply, and from whom to draw cheapest new materials for consumption and manufacture, freights for shipping, and occasions for commercial enterprise.

Immense as has been the stimulus given to the Atlantic cities by the growth of the West, and vast as the trade and Commerce are which our railroads and canals bring to the coast, still the half of the wealth of that great West has not been unfolded; Canada, stretching along the whole northern shores of the lakes, and that great river bounding upon our northern and eastern frontiers, including the other provinces, more than three thousand miles; her people endowed with an energy similar to our own; with fertile lands and great amounts of surplus produce,—seeks with toil and trouble a market convenient of access for her great exports, in which she also will be content to purchase those imports that her increasing population shall require for their comfort and luxury. In her search, she finds

that American energy, industry, and capital, directed by the forethought of genius, have furnished great systems of internal improvements, canals and railroads, connecting the frontier in the West with the Ohio River and the Mississippi, by which New Orleans and the Gulf of Mexico can be reached; and in the East, similar works joining her easily with the great markets of Baltimore, Philadelphia, New York, Boston, and that young emblem of Yankee energy, Portland.

How vast an addition her Commerce would make to the revenues of all these roads and canals; what increase to the prosperity of these cities; what development and growth to our tonnage and carrying trade, should she thus avail herself of our improvements, and pay our industry the tolls, charges, commissions and freights, hauling, &c., to be derived from the control of her trade, now \$35,000,000 a year, and most rapidly increasing! Why is not this object secured for our people? It should seem that when a great measure promising prosperity and benefit to millions of our population was suggested, that statesmen would gladly avail themselves of the opportunity to press its accomplishment with untiring energy; but experience has shown us that it is from the people that must spring this energy and action that forces legislators up to their duty. Year after year Canada has presented her project at the doors of Congress, and it still hangs heavy and the wheels of progress roll slowly. What is the obstacle that shuts her out from our ports and us out from a good trade? It does not spring from Canada. Years since she has taken all the action necessary to show how seriously she is in earnest in desiring friendly and reciprocal relations with us.

Our tariff on importations, like a great Chinese Wall, stretches along our northern frontier and forbids their availing themselves of our facilities, unless they pay a duty to the government that averages about 30 per cent, so high as to destroy trade and prevent the free and full use of our means of transportation even for bonded goods. Every railroad that reaches by any of its connections to the lakes, is prevented from developing its full powers by the restrictive policy that forces the trade of Canada to pass out of the mouth of the St. Lawrence and away from our ports and harbors. Every steamboat that floats upon the Ohio, the Mississippi, the Hudson, or the Chesapeake, is thus deprived of a portion of that carrying trade which ought to add to their profits. Every warehouse in the great cities on the Ohio, the Mississippi, or the Atlantic, is deprived of a part of its legitimate revenues by these restrictions on our neighbors. Every mechanic who wields a sledge, an axe, a hammer, or a tool, finds his loss in this restriction—to remove it would be to add another valley, great and fertile like the Ohio, to the commercial uses of the Union. Every ton of shipping, every wharf, and every farmer, drayman, stevedore, lumper, or laborer, would join in the prosperity produced by this measure. Its advantages are not all included in this export of the surplus of Canada, or its carriage by us. The effect of a reciprocal tariff would be to make our lake ports, our Atlantic ports, Cincinnati, St. Louis, and New Orleans—all home markets for the Canadians and the provincials. There they would sell their produce, leaving the selection of foreign markets and the conducting of foreign trade to our merchants. Where they sold, there would they buy their supplies; the economy of making but one journey, and the advantage of a great assortment such as these cities afford, would induce them,

even in the face of a small adverse per centage, as a convenience, to employ their funds again in trade without the loss of interest.

Although the proposed measures of reciprocity are desired to cover only those raw materials of agricultural products, or of the forest, mines, or fisheries, and on them alone is it proposed to abolish the duties—yet while making these exchanges, our manufactures of all sorts and our foreign imports would assuredly find much greater markets, and the amount of purchases of our Northern neighbors would be more considerable than now; an immense stimulus would thus be given to all our arts and industry, and the enriching stream from the new market would favorably reach every man who had anything to sell, or who aids in producing anything which is intended for consumption.

Manufacturers have for years labored to represent the advantage of a home market. Here would be one—the purchaser would come to your doors, while the simplicity and rapidity of the transaction would be a source of profit to both.

A further view of the geographical position of Canada is worthy of notice. The River St. Lawrence and the Lakes stretch along her southern border; on the north are the regions of eternal snows; the only outlet to the Atlantic that is under her own flag is the mouth of the River St. Lawrence. If, then, the present isolating system of the United States shall be pursued, it necessarily follows that Canada will withdraw her present favorable regulations, in order to avail herself of the St. Lawrence wholly for her trade; this will create upon our North a rival system at once deleterious to the supremacy of our power, as well as the growth of our navigation. Quebec and Montreal must become the rendezvous of shipping, instead of our ports—already when nearly three-sevenths of her trade is through our ports—Quebec having the transportation of the other four-sevenths, is the second maritime port upon the continent of America; exporting more, in proportion to her population, than any city in the United States, and employing a tonnage of 580,000 tons, in 1851, to carry off her exports, which is greater than any port on the continent, except New York.

What the progress of population will do for it is very clear—this thing happens in the young tree. When the population of Canada is just developing, and only 1,800,000 souls, what shall we reasonably expect when in a few years she shall contain from seven to ten millions of people, whose trade our unnatural restrictions shall force through this outlet to the development of Canadian hostility; and a tonnage for transportation unparalleled in the history of the world; a commercial navy and seamen hanging on our North that will be to England the assurance of her continued supremacy of the ocean, and to us a source of well-grounded apprehension! May we not have to say that what all the power of England could not do, our folly has done?

EFFECTS ON THE SOUTHERN STATES.

In considering this subject briefly, it will appear that the South have a direct interest in both branches of this question. The agricultural products which the provinces would take will readily occur at the first glance to every planter—rice, sugar, hemp, cotton, and the tropical fruits. But besides, the great ship-building interests of the Eastern provinces would create a demand in the South of a new sort. The lumber of the South differs radically from that of the North; and in the great art of ship-building each

has its uses, where its superiority is most evident; and no ship is considered to be built in a first-class manner, unless in her construction a proper use of both Northern and Southern lumber is made. Were reciprocity introduced, an improvement would take place in the provincial ship-building, and a new market thus be created for the yellow pine, white oak, and live oak of the South, of great importance to them, and tending to double the value of their forests by the increased demand for their use.

The increased consumption of naval stores would also be considerable from the abolition of taxation on them, and as with the gradual increase of population the importance of these new markets becomes more fully developed, an enlarged prosperity would result to the producers of naval stores and southern oak and pine.

The effect of these liberalizing measures also would tend much to diminish the prime cost of curing fish for market—both cod, mackerel, salmon, and herring—thus cheapening an article of food of prime necessity for a laboring population. The salt-works so often undertaken along the Southern coast might be developed into a profitable state of operation.

The river Mississippi would become a thoroughfare by which tropical productions from Cuba and South America would ascend to Canada West, in the most direct manner, to the great benefit of all those cities along that route, and of the labor and capital there employed in developing and extending their internal Commerce.

The necessities of a large population who must depend for their tropical supplies on the same sources as ourselves would lead them to sympathize with us in our efforts to control and direct the affairs of the Gulf of Mexico in such a manner as will best subserve our mutual and unclashing interests—by securing the cheap production of these necessary luxuries, it would unite this continent commercially, and control the islands for the benefit of the continent, in spite of all the intrigues of the jealous powers of Europe, who regard the union of America in one peaceful league as an assault on their dynastic oppression, and the individual prosperity of our people as a reproachful evidence of the happiness of those blessed with free institutions.

EFFECT ON THE WEST.

Besides giving to the Western States a new market for live-stock, fruit, and provisions, reciprocity will yield an additional stimulus to their works of internal improvements, by aid of which Southern productions will be carried to this new market.

Upper Canada is destitute of coal-fields and beds of iron ore; the great population which will dwell there, and the whole magnificent Commerce of the Lakes, must resort to the coal-fields of Illinois, Ohio, and Western Pennsylvania, for the means of producing steam power, and for fuel and light for their cities. This new market, whose capacity must increase yearly, will stimulate with great power the coal and iron production of the Western slopes, giving not only immediate prosperity, but the assurance of future countless wealth. From the greater cheapness of coal and iron, the south side of the Lakes must always be the seat of manufactures, of machinery, agricultural tools, and castings, for Canada. And the effect of reciprocity in promoting the prosperity of the mechanics and artisans throughout the West, as well as in developing the Lake Cities, cannot but be immediate and sensible. For the States of Kentucky, Tennessee, and the valley of the Ohio, a further view is presented; the superior mildness of

their climate will always enable them to raise all descriptions of live-stock much cheaper than the Canadians, who labor under the disadvantage of having to house their stock and feed them through a tedious and cold winter: a new stock market for horses, mules, hogs, cattle, and sheep, convenient and profitable, will thus be afforded, in addition to the advantages derived from supplying them with hemp and tobacco.

THE NAVIGATION OF THE ST. LAWRENCE.

The desire long felt by the whole valley of the Lakes to open this navigation so that they can without transshipments have a free access to the ports of the world, and even build their own vessels for carrying their produce, would be gratified by the success of this measure—as by its failure the hope would be totally destroyed.

The Canadian government has completed a most excellent system of canals around all the dangerous rapids of that river, and the success of reciprocity would throw open to our people the use of all her internal improvements on the same terms as are granted to her own citizens. All the various railroads to the Atlantic ports would thus be reached by vessels from the extreme West, without transshipments, as well as the ocean.

The further experimental contest—between railroad facilities and water navigation—would be left open and free, for our people as well as the Canadians, to test, through public competition, that system which will best satisfy the demands and the necessities of Commerce, and thereby increase to the farmer the convenience of reaching a ready market, and by the reductions on the expense of freight and charges increase the value of the raw material, even while diminishing its cost to the consumer.

New England, New York, and Pennsylvania, who have each several systems of railroads or canals reaching to the lakes, will feel no hostility to this free and fair competition; they are content to stand or fall by the great merits of their systems and the results of a large and vigorous Commerce. More than 150,000,000 of dollars have been invested in railroads connecting the Atlantic with the lakes and the St. Lawrence, in addition to which canals of almost half of that cost stretch their arms to embrace the same Commerce. The value of these works of internal improvement is greater than the cost of our whole foreign tonnage, which also is engaged or interested in the same trade. The cities whose real estate has a value based in a great degree upon this Commerce, can hardly be appraised; but it would be risking nothing to say that the real prosperity and much of the profit of more than \$500,000,000 of capital in the United States is now materially affected by this question, and still more so in its future results. It is absolutely vital in importance to the whole railroad interest of Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, and Northern New York, and very material to all that of New York, Pennsylvania, and Ohio, which connects with the lakes.

EFFECTS ON NEW ENGLAND.

These provinces are all nearer to us than are New Jersey and Pennsylvania; freights between us and them by water and railroad are cheaper than to the middle States. Let us try the question.

The population of America are migratory in their character, and will not stay at home if they can make more money by emigrating. The census of 1850 gives us curious statistics on this point. In the various States of this

Union there are 6,326,900 emigrants; of these, 2,210,828 are of foreign birth, 4,115,182 are born in other States than those they now live in—thus showing that fully one-third of our population have left their allegiance to their native States in the pursuit of property and happiness.

So peculiarly are the New Englanders an emigrating people, that our increase of population is less than that of other sections. At the time of our revolution, Massachusetts had double the population of any other State; now all New England has less population than the State of New York. How shall we keep our population at home? By affording them commercial and mechanical advantages, giving to Commerce cheap supplies, large and growing markets, developing natural advantages, enabling them to carry and to exchange commodities at cheaper rates than those who compete with them. Giving to manufacturers and mechanics cheap raw material, cheap power and facilities for working it up, and convenient markets. Or, what is the root of all this, the fundamental proposition for the prosperity of a nation, giving to labor cheap food, cheap rents, cheap fuel and clothing. Most especially in this hard climate, our increase of population and prosperity depends on the ability to make the dollar go further to supply the necessary wants of a man than before.

Good government and free institutions have an effect: the desire of man to place his children in a better situation than himself, has tended to keep at home much of our population, to enjoy our school privileges and other opportunities, of learning, family ties, religion, love of home, have their influence; but if food, fuel, and rent are cheaper elsewhere, and wages the same, profit prevails, and the man will go there to better his condition. I see danger in the future for Massachusetts, unless she stirs herself.

Coal, iron, and consequently steam power, are cheaper now in New Jersey and Pennsylvania than here; markets are nearer and larger: fuel, rent, and provisions are cheaper, and the climate more genial. All these little things go to make up the per centage of profit on industry, and, in the long run, the natural advantages determine the question. Men with small means are manufacturing in the middle States profitably. Here we require large capital and the economies necessary in the organization of establishments on a large scale to insure success, as is proved by the fact that our manufacturing is mostly carried on by corporations of larger capital than the measure of individual fortunes. Yet, with smaller enterprises and less organization, Philadelphia as a manufacturing city has reached almost 500,000 population; Newark, N. J., about 38,834; and against them we can show only Lowell, 33,383, as a large manufacturing city. I take the secret of all this to be, that coal, the great element of cost in steam power, is at least one and a half dollars cheaper in Philadelphia, and about a dollar a ton cheaper in New York than it is here. Their school system is getting to be as good as ours, and they are nearer the markets of the South and West, and have cheap facilities for reaching them. Ten years will tell a sad story for us unless something should be done; these advantages must be neutralized by something, or we must stop.

Now, I think that I can show, gentlemen, that reciprocity with our Northern neighbors, though it will not restore to us those markets in which our neighbors are rapidly outstripping us, will practically, by opening a new market where we shall be on a more equal footing, neutralize these advantages, and place us in as fair position for honest and profitable competition as the mechanic and mercantile industry of the coal and iron States.

The protective system fails here, because there is a growing competition in the home market of States against whom we have no protection. Reciprocity tenders to us a new home market, as yet but slightly explored. The dark cordon of tariffs and custom-houses that have shut us off from nearly three millions of people,* who are nearer to us and of cheaper access than they are to the middle States, will be broke down by this new system. For Lower Canada and the provinces, no ingenuity of capital can furnish shorter roads from the seats of manufactures than those of New England; we shall supply them with shoes, boots, cottons, castings, woollens, and fruit. From the convenience of our harbors, and our constant intercourse with the tropics and with Europe, we can supply them with all tropical productions, sugar, coffee, molasses, and teas, at cheaper and better terms than by any other route. We shall do the most of her foreign trade and get good commission for it, besides the profitable freights for carrying her productions to the markets of the world, over our railroads and in our ships. Thus both the internal and foreign Commerce of our country will be increased, and our internal improvements made more profitable.

COAL.

In Nova Scotia and New Brunswick lie great coal beds, so convenient to tide-water that we can get them on ship-board without any cost of inland transportation; the sea freight will be about the same as that from the different ports whence we are now supplied. The great cost of transporting coal from the Alleghany Mountains to the sea coast amounts to nearly one-third the whole cost of a ton of coal, varying with different ports of shipment. The cost to Philadelphia, New York, or Baltimore, will average about \$2 per ton. All this would be saved by supplying ourselves from the mines of Pictou and Sydney.

The present tariff amounts to 30 per cent ad valorem, or about 96 cents a ton duty on this coal. Strike it off, and you have coal here good for mechanical purposes, well fit for working in iron or generating steam, at a cost of \$4 50 per chaldron—increase this trade so they can afford to organize it better, and the cost will be reduced still lower.† If coal is thus cheapened, you can use steam power along the coast for manufacturing cheaper than now, therefore more profitably. At present, whilst New York has great fleets of ocean steamers, the pride of the Union, Boston has none. The difference in the price of coal at these points is enough to affect the question of profit; you can run them cheaper from New York and repair them cheaper there. If you have in Massachusetts no works for building ocean engines as at New York, the cost of coal is a powerful reason. An-

* The population of these provinces, by the last census, stood—

1851.....	Nova Scotia	278,117
1851.....	New Brunswick.....	193,800
1848.....	Prince Edward Island.....	62,678
1845.....	Newfoundland.....	96,506
1852.....	Upper Canada	952,004
1852.....	Lower Canada.....	890,251
Total.....		2,471,366

† Pictou coal at mines (1852) costs, in quantity, per chaldron.....	\$2 75
Duties.....	0 72½
Freight to Boston.....	\$2 25 to 3 00
Sydney coal at mines costs, in quantity, per chaldron	3 20
Duty.....	0 96
Freight to Boston.....	2 00
Anthracite coal costs in Boston per ton, in quantity.....	4 50

other point, with our hard winters cheap fuel is a most important item, and coal at one-third reduced price per ton, will contribute much to the comfort and independence of the working classes. This reduction of price would affect a family materially. Thus, you see, this item will affect every one living on the sea coast; and by diminishing his expenses, increase his prosperity.

Let it not be thought that Pennsylvania will suffer by this; she will only change her customer: her great State works already reach Lake Erie, and are calculated to supply coal to Upper Canada; her Lackawana railroad connects with the Erie railroad and the Erie canal, and carried this year 75,000 tons of coal to the Lake shore. Throw off these restrictions, and she will have a natural market of 1,000,000 of people, and a profitable trade on her own great roads, instead of this unnatural market of four or five hundred thousand people. She will make by the change and we shall do so too. In a still further aspect it may be well doubted if this measure would deleteriously affect the eastern mines of Pennsylvania. The consumption of coal in New England is now limited; from the high price of the article we are prevented from engaging extensively in manufactures by steam power, and no reasonable expectations exist of the produce of the eastern Pennsylvania mines being so cheapened in prime cost or in freight, as to enable us ever to manufacture with their coal much more extensively than at present. A long and carefully conducted series of experiments made here, has announced the fact that in New England water power is much cheaper than coal. The effect of our getting our manufacturing coal from Sydney and Pictou at reduced rates of one dollar a chaldron, would not drive out the existing supplies of coal, but it would enable work to be done on the sea coast that before was too expensive to be done at all. Our iron-works of all sorts, which have been so unfortunate for many years past, would be revived by this measure; we should be enabled to go into steam navigation to a far greater extent than at present, because we could afford to build engines and steamers; we could afford to run them at rates approximating to the expense account in New York; whilst now the utmost economy of our renowned management cannot bring the cost of marine engines, and of running them, down to the same point as the New Yorkers. The same facts apply to all heavy forging, as repairing shafts, &c. In the multitudinous manufactures of iron that would grow up, and the more extensive demands of Commerce and an increasing population, the Pennsylvanians would find an increased demand for their coal, to mix with other coal in various descriptions of smelting—to be used in long voyages by steamers and propellers, where its greater compactness of bulk compared to freight, makes it an object; in all points of view they would be benefited by the extension of eastern consumption of their staple; and from our free command of the gas coal of New Brunswick, the manufacturing coal of Pictou and Sydney, we should probably double or treble the entire amount of coal consumed yearly upon this side of Cape Cod.

The total amount of provincial coal imported into the United States for 1848 was 34,800 chaldrons. Total amount raised from their mines 62,000 chaldrons. While the same year the Pennsylvania mines sent to market 3,000,000 tons. As two-thirds of the cost of coal is the expense of freight from the mines to the consumer, it follows that nature puts a limit on the circle within which any given mine can most cheaply supply coal for consumption. I have taken Cape Cod as the extreme southern point where the difference in the cost of freights will give to provincial coal, for its pur-

poses the superiority of cheapness. North of that point, if left to nature as a guide, the consumption of coal and the increase of seaboard population, and of iron and other manufactures, will be greatly accelerated by reciprocity.

I have now concluded the recital of the advantages that I desire to press upon the reader. I have shown that it gives to Commerce new trade, to capital cheaper steam power, to manufactures new markets, and to labor the three great advantages of cheaper food, fuel, and rent; while it does not decrease the prosperity of any class. Reciprocity will benefit us all in New England, will open to us those natural advantages that restrictive politics have robbed us of. We have but to break down this Chinese wall, give freedom to our trades, and the advantages that art and nature have created for us will yield us an ample protection in the future. Invite this great people to come among us and learn lessons of freedom; let them fairly judge if our ancestors were wise in breaking the trammels of a tyrannical colonial system; and if they read the lesson aright, we can thank God that a propagandi of gentle, peaceful Commerce, and benevolent reciprocity, has fallen like the dews of heaven on their hearts. We offer a system of real progress, destructive to a dynastic feudality, and which, if followed with self-relying confidence, will lead our neighbors to independence and prosperity.

These facts have constrained me to believe that the material prosperity and wealth of the whole Northern frontier, and of our Atlantic coast of the South, as well as the great West, can be highly benefited by this mutual and free intercourse. I have not, in the narrow limits to which a lecture should be restricted, space to dwell upon all the points that so beneficially affect our interests; the great demand for our Western beef and pork, the apples and the more tropical productions of the Southern States, which would seek markets there by aid of the Western internal improvements; the Illinois canal and railroads, the Ohio and Indiana railroads and canals, tending to build up cities in the West, and to add, by various apparent means, to the wealth of these portions of the Union. The principles of public policy on which rests the question of reciprocal relations of free Commerce with our neighbors, are those which in our earlier history had the support of three of our most illustrious statesmen—Jefferson, Franklin, and Adams. Indeed they were the great hope of Mr. Jefferson's life; and in his report as Secretary of the Treasury, he expresses his fervent desire to induce even one nation of the world to try the experiment with us. This theory has been the basis of every commercial treaty we have ever made; and although the prejudices of the old world have always prevented our truly republican policy from obtaining a theater to try the benefits of reciprocally free intercourse, at last, upon the shores of this continent, there has grown up a people numerous and prosperous, who acknowledge the force of these great principles, and with open hands offer to us the opportunity of trying with them the practical effects of these great economical measures in all the breadth and fullness of the conception of our revolutionary statesmen: and I cannot conceive that, now, after so many years of ardent hope and disappointment, the American people will permit to pass the opportunity of verifying the truth of ideas most eminently American in their origin, and which will commence that great revolution in the theory of legislation for Commerce and the interests of the people, that Providence seems to have reserved as the special mission of the American people.

ART. IV.—THE MORTALITY OF CHARLESTON, SOUTH CAROLINA,

WITH REFERENCE TO THE PRINCIPLES OF LIFE INSURANCE.

TO FREEMAN HUNT, *Editor of the Merchants' Magazine*.—

SIR:—In your Magazine for January, 1850, I published a table of mortality for Baltimore, founded on the interments from 1826 to 1848, and the enumerations of the inhabitants in the census of 1830 and in that of 1840. The mode of comparing the mortality of different places which is there insisted on as the best and most satisfactory, is to determine the chance of living one year or ten years at every period of life. This same method I propose now to apply to Charleston, South Carolina; and then compare its mortality with that of Baltimore and other places.

The interments in Charleston have been carefully registered for a long series of years. The number and age and sex and color have been published under the supervision of Drs. De Saussure and Dawson, who have devoted much attention to this subject. The tables go back to 1822; but the ravages of yellow fever having disappeared for many years past, except for the single season of 1852, it will not be well to go back so far to determine the present sanitary condition of the city. The deaths from 1822 to 1830 were about one in 31; from 1831 to 1840 one in 35; and from 1841 to 1850 one in 42.

I will use the 12 years from 1839 to 1850 in making up my tables, believing that this period will more probably indicate the present and future mortality of the city, than if I should include the earlier years, when the yellow fever added so largely to the annual deaths.

I will use only the census and the interments of the white population; as the slaves comprise a large portion of the inhabitants, and their mortality, besides being uncertain, would not afford a fair comparison between Charleston and other places.

Table I. contains the interments of white persons as published by the Board of Health for the whole twelve years. In Table II. is inserted the population in 1840, as enumerated in the United States Census, the population in 1848 as taken by the city authorities, and the average population for the twelve years from 1839 to 1850.

In Table III. I have interpolated this population and the deaths for every age, from the earliest to the latest period of life. Thus, under 5 years, the numbers of the living under 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5, are put down at 4,800, 4,450, 4,250, 4,100, and 3,916, and the deaths at 331, 172, 125, 82, and 56, making in all 21,516 and 766, which are the population and the interments in Tables I. and II. for the whole period of twelve years.

The errors and defects of all statistics of this kind prevent this interpolation being made by any mathematical formula; and the rules that have guided me in drawing up this table are, that there shall be no sudden change in the ratio of the living to the dying at two successive ages, that this ratio shall generally increase every year from 10 or 11 up to old age, and that the increase shall conform more or less to the rates developed by the experience of other places. In order to rectify any errors in the ratios, between the living and the dying at every age, I have taken the geometrical mean of five contiguous ratios, and this average is inserted in column fifth, as expressing the true ratio for any particular age. This is not done under 20, as it would not be allowable there; but above that age, it is not

only allowable, but tends very much to exclude irregularities and correct errors, which, though small, would mar and disfigure the results.

These average ratios are the true elements of comparison between different places, but to make this comparison in different ways, column sixth is inserted, which shows how many would survive at every period of life out of 10,000 births, if the population were stationary, and not affected by emigration or immigration.

Column seventh contains the deaths at every age. An additional column is inserted, which is based on a mathematical formula, applicable to every table of mortality to which it has been applied, and this, it is believed, represents more correctly the true mortality in a stationary population than column sixth.

These deaths in column seventh are not obtained by multiplying the numbers at the beginning of the year by the ratio for that year, but by multiplying the average at the beginning and end of the year by this ratio. Thus the ratio for the first year is .0690; but this is the ratio for the average number living between birth and the first year of life, which is less than the number of births. If 10,000 be the number born, and x the deaths under one year, the average population under the age of one year will be $10,000 - \frac{1}{2}x$. This multiplied by the ratio which is given, will equal x . Hence x is determined. Thus for example $(10,000 - \frac{1}{2}x) \times (.0690) = x$, gives $x = 667$. And so all the other numbers in this column are calculated.

Having explained briefly the mode of constructing the tables, I proceed to compare the mortality of Charleston with that of other places.

1. The mortality under the first year is less than half what it is at Baltimore. It is less than half the amount in the Carlisle table, and not a third of the amount in Sweden or in France.

These numbers are for Charleston, 667 out of 10,000 births; for Baltimore, 1,518; for Carlisle, 1,539; for Northampton, 1,347; for Sweden, 2,015; for Montpelier, 2,918; and for France, according to Duvillard, 2,325.

2. From the 1st to the 5th year the mortality in Charleston is also much less than in either of the above-mentioned places.

For Charleston the deaths out of 10,000 births are 908; for the other five places, they are 1,354, 1,664, 1,238, 2,962, 1,843. This difference, though not so large as before, is very considerable.

3. From 5 to 10 and from 10 to 20, the same difference is observable. In Charleston the deaths for these two intervals out of the 10,000 born, are 250 and 353. For Baltimore they are 358 and 350. For Carlisle they are 347 and 370; and for Sweden, 344 and 400. From 10,000 born the number reaching the age of 20 are, at Charleston, 7,822; at Baltimore, 6,420; at Carlisle, 6,090; at Northampton, 4,405; in Sweden, 5,903; in Montpelier, 4,650; and in France, 5,022. The deaths in these twenty years are 65 per cent more in Baltimore than in Charleston, 80 per cent more in Carlisle, and the per-centage is still larger at the other places.

Lest any should suppose there was an error in the mode of making this comparison, by referring to a calculated table it will be easy to show that the data on which the tables are based exhibit the same favorable result for Charleston.

The deaths for the first five years of life were 766 out of 21,516 living at that age, making the per centage $3\frac{1}{2}$. For Baltimore they were 1,091 out of 14,281, or $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. At Carlisle they were 92 out of 1,096, or over

8 per cent. From 5 to 10, the interments at Charleston were 105 out of 16,956, making a ratio of about five-eighths of one per cent; while at Baltimore they were 114 out of 10,889, giving a ratio of more than one per cent. At Carlisle the rate was about the same as at Baltimore. From 10 to 20, the mortality at Charleston is 105 out of 32,112, or about one-third of one per cent. For Baltimore there were 115 out of 21,351, or more than one-half of one per cent.

4. After the age of 20 this favorable result for Charleston disappears. At every period of life from manhood to old age, the chance of dying in one year or in ten is a little greater at Charleston than at Baltimore, and much greater than at Carlisle, or in Sweden. These results are embodied in Table IV. The excess over Baltimore is so slight that at a few ages it disappears in the table; but if the harmonized results be compared, the mortality at every age over 20 will be found against Charleston and in favor of Baltimore.

5. It is singular, and almost incredible, that if the slave population of Charleston had been included in the comparison, it would have given a lower result for the mortality between 20 and 60. The deaths between childhood and youth among the blacks are more numerous than among the whites, and this might be anticipated from their careless and negligent habits. After 20 it might be expected that their exercise in the open air, and their ability to resist the unhealthy influences of the hot summer and autumn, would balance the injurious effects of greater exposure and ignorance of the laws of health; but the statistics would seem to show that they more than balance them. I have not, however, included these reports in the tables of mortality for Charleston, because I am unable to put confidence in the accuracy of the ages of the slave population, since it seldom happens that the master or the servant knows the age of the slave with much exactness. Before middle life they are usually underrated, and after that the error is in the other direction.

6. As the Carlisle tables are those which our insurance companies generally use, these results for Baltimore and Charleston, indicating a mortality at middle life nearly double that of Sweden or Carlisle, show how dangerous it is for any company to reduce its premiums below what are required by the Carlisle tables, especially as the mortality in Boston and Philadelphia is no better than in these two cities, while in New York it is still worse. The deaths in Boston, Philadelphia, Charleston, and Baltimore are about 1 in 40; in New York they have averaged 1 in 34 for twenty years past, but recently they have reached 1 in 30. In New Orleans they are more than twice as numerous as in New York.

TABLE I.—DEATHS OF WHITES.

	1839-40.	1841-48.	1848-50.	Total. 1839-50.
Under 1 year	57	204	70	331
5	57	283	95	435
10	17	60	28	105
20	46	67	34	147
30	183	248	127	563
40	127	299	133	559
50	77	227	111	415
60	44	148	75	267
70	37	144	53	234
80	23	118	44	185
90	16	75	29	120
Over 90	2	13	4	19
Total	691	1,886	803	3,380

TABLE III.

Age.	White population interpolated.....	Inferments interpolated.....	Ratio of the living to the dying....	Average ratios....	Chance of dying in one year.....	Living in a stationary population..	Deaths in a stationary population..	Sanitary table based.....
0.....	4,800	331	.06900667	10,000	1,667
1.....	4,450	172	.03860879	9,333	354
2.....	4,250	125	.02940290	8,979	260
3.....	4,100	82	.02000198	8,719	173
4.....	3,916	56	.01430142	8,546	121
5.....	3,680	40	.01090108	8,425	91
6.....	3,500	28	.00800080	8,324	67
7.....	3,380	18	.00530053	8,267	44
8.....	3,240	11	.00340034	8,223	28
9.....	3,156	8	.00250025	8,195	20
10.....	3,120	7	.00220022	8,175	18
11.....	3,090	7	.00230023	8,157	19
12.....	3,080	7	.00230023	8,138	19
13.....	3,040	8	.00260026	8,119	21
14.....	3,038	9	.00300030	8,098	24
15.....	3,100	11	.00350035	8,074	28
16.....	3,200	14	.00440044	8,046	35
17.....	3,400	18	.00530053	8,011	42
18.....	3,500	26	.00740074	7,969	59
19.....	3,564	40	.01120111	7,910	88
20.....	3,620	52	.0144	144	.0143	7,822	112	7,876
21.....	3,690	54	.0146	146	.0145	7,710	112	7,753
22.....	3,690	55	.0149	149	.0148	7,598	112	7,630
23.....	3,700	56	.0151	151	.0150	7,486	112	7,507
24.....	3,720	57	.0153	153	.0152	7,374	113	7,385
25.....	3,680	57	.0155	155	.0154	7,262	112	7,262
26.....	3,680	58	.0158	158	.0157	7,150	112	7,139
27.....	3,630	58	.0160	160	.0159	7,038	112	7,017
28.....	3,580	58	.0162	164	.0163	6,926	113	6,895
29.....	3,502	58	.0166	169	.0168	6,818	114	6,773
30.....	3,340	56	.0174	176	.0175	6,699	117	6,650
31.....	3,160	58	.0184	184	.0182	6,582	120	6,527
32.....	2,990	58	.0194	193	.0191	6,462	123	6,404
33.....	2,840	58	.0204	202	.0200	6,339	127	6,282
34.....	2,680	57	.0213	211	.0209	6,212	130	6,160
35.....	2,530	56	.0221	220	.0218	6,082	132	6,037
36.....	2,410	55	.0228	227	.0224	5,950	133	5,914
37.....	2,310	54	.0234	234	.0231	5,817	134	5,792
38.....	2,210	53	.0240	240	.0237	5,683	135	5,669
39.....	2,110	52	.0247	246	.0243	5,548	135	5,546
40.....	1,980	50	.0253	252	.0249	5,413	135	5,423
41.....	1,860	48	.0258	258	.0255	5,278	135	5,299
42.....	1,740	46	.0264	264	.0261	5,143	134	5,175
43.....	1,630	44	.0270	271	.0267	5,009	134	5,051
44.....	1,515	42	.0277	277	.0273	4,875	133	4,927
45.....	1,400	40	.0286	283	.0279	4,742	132	4,803
46.....	1,350	39	.0289	288	.0284	4,610	131	4,679
47.....	1,265	37	.0292	292	.0288	4,479	129	4,554
48.....	1,180	35	.0296	295	.0291	4,350	127	4,429
49.....	1,140	34	.0298	297	.0293	4,223	124	4,304
50.....	1,100	33	.0300	300	.0296	4,099	121	4,173
51.....	1,030	31	.0301	302	.0298	3,978	119	4,052
52.....	955	29	.0304	305	.0300	3,859	116	3,926
53.....	910	28	.0308	308	.0303	3,743	113	3,800
54.....	840	26	.0310	311	.0306	3,630	111	3,674
55.....	765	24	.0314	315	.0310	3,519	109	3,548

Age.	White population interpolated.....	Interments inter-poled.....	Ratio of the living to the dying.....	Average ratios....	Chance of dying in one year.....	Lying in a station at population..	Deaths in a station at population..	Estimated table bar-monted.....
56.....	755	24	.0818	319	.0314	3,410	107	3,422
57.....	740	24	.0824	324	.0319	3,303	105	3,296
58.....	730	24	.0829	340	.0334	3,198	107	3,170
59.....	719	24	.0834	364	.0358	3,091	111	3,044
60.....	600	24	.0400	397	.0389	2,980	116	2,918
61.....	540	24	.0445	434	.0425	2,864	122	2,793
62.....	490	24	.0490	477	.0466	2,742	128	2,668
63.....	460	24	.0522	512	.0499	2,614	130	2,543
64.....	440	24	.0546	545	.0531	2,484	132	2,419
65.....	420	24	.0571	575	.0559	2,352	132	2,295
66.....	380	23	.0605	608	.0590	2,220	131	2,172
67.....	360	23	.0639	646	.0626	2,089	131	2,050
68.....	320	22	.0687	687	.0664	1,958	130	1,930
69.....	298	22	.0738	730	.0704	1,826	128	1,811
70.....	270	21	.0778	777	.0748	1,700	127	1,693
71.....	245	20	.0816	820	.0788	1,573	124	1,577
72.....	230	20	.0870	857	.0822	1,449	119	1,463
73.....	210	19	.0905	902	.0863	1,330	115	1,352
74.....	205	19	.0927	953	.0910	1,215	111	1,243
75.....	180	18	.1000	1000	.0955	1,104	105	1,136
76.....	170	18	.1060	1080	.1030	999	103	1,033
77.....	150	17	.1130	1140	.1080	896	97	933
78.....	140	17	.1210	1230	.1160	799	92	837
79.....	120	16	.1330	1350	.1270	707	90	746
80.....	108	16	.1480	1520	.1410	617	87	659
81.....	90	16	.1670	1730	.1590	530	84	577
82.....	75	15	.2000	1980	.1800	446	80	500
83.....	60	14	.2330	2240	.2010	366	73	428
84.....	51	13	.2560	2500	.2220	293	64	363
85.....	43	12	.2700	2710	.2380	229	54	302
86.....	37	11	.2980	2870	.2510	175	44	243
87.....	30	9	.3000	2910	.2590	131	34	200
88.....	26	8	.3080	2940	.2560	97	25	153
89.....	20	6	.3000	2900	.2530	72	18	122
90.....	11	3	.2720	2850	.2490	54	13	92
91.....	11	3	.2720	2800	.2440	41	10	67
92.....	11	3	.2720	2870	.2510	31	8	47
93.....	7	2	.2850	2990	.2600	23	5	32
94.....	6	2	.3330	3110	.2700	18	5	20
95.....	6	2	.3330	3570	.3030	18	4	12
96.....	3	1	.3330	4000	.3330	9	3	7
97.....	2	1	.5000	5330	.4210	6	3	4
98.....	2	1	.5000	6670	.5000	3	2	2
99.....	1	1	10000	1000	10000	1	1	1

TABLE IV.

	CHANCE OF DYING IN TEN YEARS.				CHANCE OF DYING IN ONE YEAR.			
	Charleston.	Baltimore.	Carlisle.	Sweden.	Charleston.	Baltimore.	Carlisle.	Sweden.
Birth . .	.18	.32	.35	.37	.067	.162	.154	.201
10....	.04	.05	.06	.06	.002	.004	.004	.001
20....	.14	.11	.07	.09	.014	.011	.007	.007
30....	.10	.17	.10	.11	.017	.015	.010	.011
40....	.24	.20	.13	.15	.025	.022	.013	.014
50....	.28	.28	.17	.22	.030	.028	.014	.020
60....	.43	.39	.34	.41	.039	.039	.033	.033
70....	.64	.57	.60	.67	.075	.069	.052	.076
80....	.91	.76	.85	.88	.141	.111	.122	.146
90....	100	.90	.94	100	.249	.167	.261	.233

TABLE II.—WHITE POPULATION.

	June, 1840.	Nov., 1843.	Average from Jan. 1, 1839 to '50.	Total for 12 years.
Under 5 years.....	1,818	1,765	1,793	21,516
10	1,268	1,584	1,413	16,956
15	1,218	1,329	1,279	15,348
20	1,486	1,324	1,397	16,764
30	3,062	3,023	3,041	36,492
40	2,050	2,352	2,215	26,580
50	1,108	1,375	1,255	15,060
60	598	808	712	8,544
70	257	442	359	4,308
80	130	185	160	1,920
90	26	45	45	540
Over 90	9	5	5	60
Total	13,030	14,187	13,674	164,088

Art. V.—A SHIP IN BALLAST, WITH GOODS IN TRANSIT.*

FREEMAN HUNT, *Editor of the Merchants' Magazine*:—

SIR: A vessel takes on board goods at New York, which goods are to be delivered in Canton; but, by the knowledge of the shipper and all concerned, her intended voyage is from New York to Charleston, South Carolina, there to complete her cargo, and thence to Liverpool, England, to which port that portion of her cargo taken on board at Charleston is to be delivered, and that portion taken on board at New York is to be retained on board; and the ship, being bound to Canton, may or may not fill up with goods at Liverpool for the port of her destination. Now, inasmuch as this American ship is, in the course of her voyage, not only to enter upon the high seas, but to enter foreign ports, the United States, by its laws, requires for her a captain, and gives him the flag of this nation, and also the ship's register, roll of equipage, &c, bill of health, &c., and requires of its collector to furnish to this captain a certificate to the manifest of his cargo, &c., and to clear the ship upon the oath of the captain, and he is forbidden to go to sea until he shall first clear his ship at the custom house. It also requires the collector to endorse the captain's name upon the ship's register under the seal of his office, and countersigned by the naval officer of the port at its custom house; to furnish him with a certified bill of health when bound to a foreign port—which the laws of that foreign country require to be countersigned by their consul, vice-consul, or commercial agent, (as the case may be,) at the port from whence she cleared for their port.

In cases of this kind, as supposed above—First, the *captain* must clear his ship at the custom house. Second, he must clear his ship at New York, and, as she does not cross a collection district, the collector at New York may clear her and the goods for Canton for Liverpool *via* Charleston, S. C. On his arrival at Charleston the captain is required to report ship and cargo, if he is only to touch at that port; but if he remains over a certain number

* The writer of the following communication, Captain JOHN NASS, is an experienced ship-master, having been connected with the mercantile marine of this country for more than forty years. His experience in such matters has of course been large, and will, we are quite sure, secure for the present paper the attention of all who are interested in the subject discussed.—*Ed. Merch. Mag.*

of hours, or if he has to take on board any cargo, or land any whatever, the captain is required to "enter" his ship at the custom house, with a manifest of all merchandise on board; and from this latter port the captain of that ship, now with a full cargo, must, with a correct manifest, upon his oath, clear his ship for Liverpool; and upon his arrival at Liverpool the captain is required, by the laws of England, (within twenty-four hours after his arrival,) to "enter" his ship at the custom house, and to render, upon his oath, a correct manifest of all his cargo, including that portion which is to be delivered by that captain, in that ship, (the acts of God and the king's enemies only excepted,) at Canton; and thus entered, cannot land those goods or any part thereof at any port within her majesty's domains, except under certain circumstances rendering it necessary, and in such cases the law defines certain duties of the captain of that ship, and certain formalities to be gone through, before a permit can be granted to land them, and which we have not time now to set down.

Now, suppose the captain, upon his arrival at Liverpool and in entering his ship, had rendered a manifest only of the goods taken on board at Charleston for Liverpool, and remained silent in reference to that part of his cargo taken on board at New York and bound for Canton. This neglect (or refusal) would have thrown these goods out of transitu, and thereby forfeited the ship and the goods with her (if over a certain small value) to the Queen of England, and rendered the captain liable to all the pains and penalties of perjury. And why? Because he, the captain, had made, instituted, and confirmed by such neglect or refusal, *himself*, (no part of his officers or crew,) in the eyes of the law, a *smuggler*; and in all similar cases, discovered by the officers of customs in these United States, and in any port of any nation within the pale of Christendom, the captain, ship, and cargo would be liable to equal penalties.

Had he entered these goods as being on board his ship, and in that ship on their way for Canton, these goods would then be in transitu, and entitled to be respected, and to all the benefits of the laws regulating goods "in transitu;" but being imported from a foreign port, his neglect to enter deprived them of such respect and benefits, and further made them liable to confiscation.

Coastwise within the United States, the collector of the port of New York may clear a vessel and cargo for New Orleans direct; but he cannot clear that vessel for New Orleans *via* St. Mary's, in Georgia, there to land a part of her cargo, because she passes beyond the limits of the first collection district. Anywhere within the said district, a vessel under an enrollment may proceed from port to port, provided she has no foreign article on board, without entering or clearing; but without such foreign article on board, being under an enrollment, she cannot cross the line of said collection district without clearing at the custom house before sailing, and entering at the custom house at the port at which she arrives. All vessels under register must clear at the custom house, when bound to a port within such district. The coast of the United States is divided into three collection districts, viz., First district, extending from the line between the United States and Canada to St. Mary's, Georgia; second district, extending from St. Mary's to Mobile Point, (if my recollection serves me right;) third district, extending from Mobile Point to the mouth of the Rio del Norte. California, since acquired, may be the fourth, but we are not informed.

Two separate instances will give some idea of the laws of the United

States regulating the coasting trade. In 1837, when in command of a registered vessel, I took in cargo at Baltimore, Maryland, for Charleston, S. C., (both ports within the first collection district;) after leaving my ship to "clear," a pipe of French brandy ("original package") arrived alongside, and was taken on board and stowed away, and of course was not upon my manifest, and therefore it was not cleared, and the fact of its being on board was unknown to me until at sea. On arriving at Charleston, I put the pipe of (French) brandy on my manifest, and entered it in due form of law; but this could not save me. The article being foreign, and in the original package, made me liable to a fine of one hundred dollars, because I had not cleared it at Baltimore. Under the circumstances, however, our very good and respected old Uncle Sam consented to reduce the fine to forty dollars, and which he will find on his books, if he will take the trouble to look back.

Again we proceeded from Baltimore to Port Deposit in a vessel under enrollment, took a cargo of white pine lumber for St. Augustine, East Florida. This made it *necessary* for me to *clear*, because bound to a port *south of the district*. But there was no custom-house at Port Deposit, and none nearer to me than Baltimore; the wind being adverse to my touching at that port and favorable for me to proceed on my voyage, and knowing the fact of making myself liable to my faithful old uncle (before named) "to fine," for crossing a line of one of his collection districts without clearing according to his directions; but having nothing on board "of foreign growth or manufacture," (these are his own words,) I knew that forty dollars would appease his wrath; and again, if he will turn to his books at St. Augustine, East Florida, he will find that he gave a receipt in full for that sum, though I did contend that it was his own fault, for not having an officer at that port with at least power to clear coastwise. The American steamer from Mobile bound for Havana and New York, or from Mobile bound to New York, via Havana; or bound from New York with privilege to touch at Havana, Isle de Cuba. With your legal eye open, my dear uncle, take a peep first into the office of your collector at Mobile, in reference to this difficulty, and then another peep into your consul's office at Havana, and see if these officers have made any legal mistakes or not, (and be sure you keep cool.) Then take a look, with both eyes open, at the act and acts of the agent and the captain of that ship, and then you will know your duty (as one of great integrity, and in all respects a perfect gentleman,) to your much esteemed friend the Queen of Spain, or to her Captain-General of Cuba, as the case may be.

We feel assured that no informal or illegal clearance, whereby any American vessel or cargo would or might be endangered, had, or ever could pass any collector and naval officer in these United States. Thence, when the ship and cargo is cleared according to law, it then becomes the captain of that ship to see that upon his arrival at a foreign port, (especially) to enter his ship (in like manner) in strict accordance to the laws of that country. And the government of the United States does not contemplate, nor would it countenance the entry of that ship by an agent or any other person, except the officer in charge, in case of the death of the captain. It appears that the agent or consignee of the Black Warrior took upon himself the entrance and clearance of that ship, and both before her arrival; and entered the ship in ballast, and cleared her in ballast! when in fact she had cargo on board. This was an act violating the laws of Spain in the port of Havana, and would have been in violation of the laws of any and all other countries;

and worst of all he committed perjury, when upon his oath he declared that the ship was in ballast, for it appears that she had cargo on board on her arrival, and the captain neglected to report the fact to the custom-house at Havana, and which would not have been passed unnoticed by a revenue cutter or custom-house officer of this or any other Christian, Turkish, or Chinese country. Thus entered and cleared, they ask for the pass to depart; (at Havana, after a vessel has cleared, it is necessary to have a pass to pass the guard-ship, and only with this pass and search, by an officer from the guard-ship, can she be, by law and custom, permitted to proceed to sea;) the pass was refused because a false entry had been made, and a like false clearance, and no attempt of captain or consignee had been made, or offer, to rectify this gross violation of law; (knowing, we hope, that the law had been violated) and for this act, ship and cargo, and captain, rendered liable to the pains and penalties therefor; and under these facts the authorities could not grant the pass. Nor should this government attempt to justify the conduct of the consignee or captain of that ship, and for the ostensible reason, that of being also a commercial country.

If a Spanish ship be bound from Havana to New York and Cadiz, she must clear at Havana for New York and Cadiz—having on board, say five hundred bags coffee, shipped for Cadiz—upon her arrival at New York it is the duty of the captain not only to enter his ship, but also the coffee, and by his clearance at Havana to show that the coffee was cleared, and cleared for Cadiz; and upon his oath declare that he has no more cargo on board, and that no part of said cargo is to be landed at New York, or any other port of the United States. Now may I ask my old and respected friend and relation, what he would do, (and we might ask what he had done in similar cases,) if the captain had entered his ship at the custom-house in New York, in ballast, and upon his oath declared that he was only in ballast, and not having on board any merchandise or article of Commerce? Would not this act be “a false entry,” and punished by your own laws? (we hope so,) and what the penalty? confiscation, and the captain to fine and imprisonment for perjury. The captains of all vessels from foreign countries are required to be ready with, and if hailed by one of your revenue cutters, to deliver to the boarding officer from that cutter, two correct copies of his manifest, one to be certified by such officer, the other to be retained by him, and which the captain of your cutter is required to deliver to your collector of the port to which she is bound, both copies first being signed by the captain. Am I right, dear uncle? for I have no law library, and therefore speak from memory altogether. We presume that you are thus particular in order to establish a legal system by which the Commerce of the happy country over which you preside, is to be regulated; by collecting your revenue, and preventing smuggling by all the means in your power; and to promote commercial men in their business, and to give confidence to commercial men of all nations in your integrity. Say if you please when by your laws are goods in transit, and also when a ship may be legally “entered in ballast?” and also when goods are in bond? These are plain questions, but important to your ship-masters, and occasionally to officious mercantile agents.

The several positions of your merchant ships and their cargoes should be known to all seamen, who, by your own authority, under your Stripes and Stars, is captain; and as it is by your laws that (under God) he is captain, I would, in behalf of American ship-masters, take it as a special and per-

sonal favor, dear Uncle, if you would extend to them a small share of parental care, as a class of your subjects that are highly useful to your people at large; and as the duties required of them are manifold, we feel that we are not asking of you too much, nor in vain, inasmuch as your government first, then your ship-owners and their underwriters, shippers of goods, passengers, sailors, and ship-builders—all have their legitimate claims upon the scientific knowledge, integrity, and practical skill of ship-masters in the merchant service.

Nor are the calls upon them by those interested parties—yourself first—“few and far between,” as you must be aware. These ship-masters, by your own authority, have no “office hours,” no specially legal hours for refreshment and sleep, and upon the high seas dare not do unto himself as you would he *shall* do unto others; and when in cases where they have, like good and faithful servants, in peace and in war, faithfully and manfully watched and stood by your national flag intrusted to their keeping, upon the ocean and in lands afar off, from youth to old age, and by which they are no longer fit for service. Not that I would impeach your character as a dutiful parent, but must say to you, (and you know, dear Uncle, how much I love you!) that you have never proved yourself, by any acts of yours, or few at most, the friend of the aged ship-master. Ah, it pleases me much to see you blush: it proves to me, Uncle, that you intend to mend your ways towards the aged of this class of your people. You have hitherto acted towards them as unsuitable for custom-house officers, or any other office within your gift. You have done nothing whatever, either by act or recommendation, to qualify them for the important trusts and heavy burdens they are to stand up under during the vigor of their manhood. But, worst of all, you have declared by your laws that the aged, worn-out, and it has, and may be, wounded sailor of the merchant service, to be outcasts from your care.

Sir—oh, pardon, dear Uncle, I was only about to say to you, that inasmuch as you claim it to be your duty to regulate Commerce, you might also do something for those employed and are to be employed in the merchant service under the American flag; for we do know, that in view of their duty, now as ever, they stand ready to defend your home and fireside, and, in spite of your luke-warmness towards them, would not regard you in the light of a step-father, but as their own relation in blood. They do not ask you for the “golden swab,” or “bright button,” as they are opposed alike to the livery and the crest; for you have, by enactments, excluded them from your Navy as sailing-masters.

I only mention this to jog your memory, and now announce myself ready to hear your answer to my three questions as to the legal position of goods, for I am anxious that ship-masters should know; and that good may come out of evil, expect to follow up the Black Warrior case.

Then, as you must consult your Attorney-General, and as he must have time for research, in order to give you his written opinion, let us in the meantime look at the dispatches received by you from your Consul at Havana relating to this particular case.

Holla! Uncle, look here! Capt. Bullock, of the Black Warrior, has consented to pay \$6,000 and take back the ship—first hauled down his flag, and then agrees to pay a fine! What is this six thousand dollars paid for? For having made a false entry. Well, having made his confession, let us drop the subject. One word before we leave. I have said you had done nothing for your seamen. I wish to apologize, and call up your

recollection to a dispatch received by you when Gen. Jackson was your President, from "Neptune, King of all the Oceans," by his private secretary, complaining of injustice to his sons and subjects, in relation to the Hospital Fund. You did then suspend for a year that tax. But the several complaints therein stated relative to the Hospital Fund and Hospitals, my dear Uncle, you have never, to my knowledge, answered by act, whatever you may have done on paper. You should at least command your Secretary of State to designate and state in his annual report, amount received, amount paid, and amount on hand, of that special fund, and how much paid for and chargeable to sick sailors. And instead of hiring out that fund and the hospitals to a few of your special friends privately, you should farm them out at public auction to the highest bidder. Twenty cents per month paid to your several collectors by each and every American seaman, must be a large sum; but up to the present time you have never stated whether it be sufficient or not.

But here is an official document from your Consul at Havana, which is dated March 3d, 1854, and directed to your Secretary of State at Washington—and here it is stated by your Consul, under the seal of his office, "that he stated his ship to be in ballast, when he had cotton on board in transitu." We feel disposed to comment a little upon this fact as stated by your Consul. The ship thus entered and cleared, what was then the position of the cotton? Smuggled in, and intention to smuggle it out, most sacredly and positively declared that it was intended to be smuggled. "The steamer was expected here from Mobile, on her way to New York, on the 26th ult.; Messrs. Twing & Co., her consignees, on the day before, (25th, Saturday,) entered and cleared her in ballast."

The Consul then proceeds to say that the *Black Warrior* had repeatedly, and for nineteen months previous, committed the same violation of law, without any objections on the part of the custom-house authorities, who cannot plead ignorance, as custom-house guards are always placed on board immediately on arrival. Your Consul appears not to know the nature of the duties of those custom-house guards. They are placed on board immediately on arrival, and do not, nor can they know, except where the ship is entered in advance of her arrival, what her cargo may consist of, or if only in ballast. They are put on board to prevent smuggling; their duty is to prevent any goods from being clandestinely landed from the ship or taken on board. Their duty is upon the ship's deck, to keep a watch by day and night for that special duty; and when the ship has entered and is to be discharged, these custom-house officers are put on board, and they have a knowledge of what has been entered as being on board; but cannot possibly know what is actually on board no more than you could tell how many dozen eggs a basket contained by looking at it—you would first have to count them out. Just so with a ship's cargo and the duty of custom-house officers.

As the huckster is to a basket filled with eggs, so is the custom-house officer to the ship filled with merchandise. Suppose the basket to be filled with hens', duck, turkey, goose, and Guinea fowls' eggs, the process of assorting and counting is only to be done by removing them from the basket. Hence the manifest to a ship; but this is perhaps out of taste. I think, dear Uncle and friend, you should require your consuls to read your treaties with other nations, where they will find special reference to goods "in transitu."

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COLLISION—THE STEAMSHIP *BALTIC*, AND THE TRUSTEES OF THE LIVERPOOL DOCKS.

In the County Court, (Liverpool, England,) January, 1854. Before JOSEPH POLLOCK, Esq., Judge. *Liverpool Dock Trustees vs. Brown, Shipley & Co.* His honor proceeded to deliver judgment in this case. He said:—

In this case, an action is brought by the Trustees of the Liverpool docks against the owners of the *Baltic* steamer, to recover a sum of between £300 and £400, being the amount of damages sustained by the plaintiffs, in consequence of a collision between the steamer and the Bell Buoy or Beacon, the property of the Dock Trustees. The Bell Buoy is a floating buoy or beacon, moored permanently E. by S. some three-fourths of a mile outside the bar, between two lights, on the fair way of the Victoria Channel, at the entrance of the port of Liverpool. It is of considerable length and beam, with a mast of about 23 feet in length above the water line. It is not provided with lights, but has a self-acting bell of 4 cwt. 3 qrs. in weight, easily affected by the motion of the buoy, and the sound of which could, probably, on the night when this accident occurred, have been heard by persons on board a stationary vessel, to leeward, two miles distant. All these facts were known to the captain of the *Baltic*, who was familiar with the charts, points, and lights. No question is raised as to the amount of damage which, upon this occasion, the buoy sustained. The *Baltic* is a steamer trading between Liverpool and America, of 2,000 tons burden, 287 feet long, and 74 feet in beam, with two engines of 254 horse-power. Upon the 18th of April last, as she approached Liverpool, she was boarded about twenty minutes past eleven, P. M., and about four miles westward of Point Lynas, by a duly licensed pilot, named Ellison, who then took charge of her, as pilot, to bring her into port. Point Lynas is 35 miles from the Bell Buoy. There was a fresh breeze from the N. N. E., and the accident happened at near two, A. M., that is, about half an hour before high water. Steam vessels frequently leave the port of Liverpool shortly before high water, and it was probable that such vessels might be met in the Victoria Channel by the *Baltic*. Such steamers carry lights, and on the night in question, when there was no moon, but a tolerably clear atmosphere, with star-light and dark clouds, such lights could have been seen from the *Baltic* at a distance of five miles. The captain of the *Baltic*, not having made one of his fastest passages, and being anxious to get into port as soon as possible, asked the pilot, when the latter took charge of the ship at Point Lynas, "at what rate of speed he wished the ship to go," to which the pilot replied, "at the usual or regular speed"—which (whether it be proper or improper I stop not here to inquire) I find meant about 12 knots an hour. At this speed, the *Baltic* would run some six times her own length before she could be stopped, and the rapidity of her motion through the water would prevent those on board from hearing the sound of the Bell Buoy until close upon it. At such speed—that is, including that added by the mate, at a speed of from 12 to 13 knots an hour, which it is in evidence by the plaintiffs that the pilot "did not consider too great, or he would have ordered it to be slackened." The vessel, by direction of the pilot, as above mentioned, running by time from Point Lynas, (as under such circumstances is not unusual,) approached the Bell Buoy with the intention of passing to the southward of it, a course which, as well as that to the north of it, she might not improperly have adopted. The pilot was near the wheel, the captain amidsthips, in the immediate vicinity of the bells communicating with the engineer this most proper plan, with a lookout on the starboard bow at 2.7 A. M., when the vessel was nearing the locality of the Bell Buoy, and was running with lights open to the southward, so as to avoid it, the pilot thinking he heard the bell sounding on port quarter, and that he had passed the buoy, ordered the helm to be put to star-

board, so as to close the lights; and finding they closed pretty fast, then ordered the helm to be put a little to port, so as to keep the fair way into the channel. All these orders were immediately obeyed, but the captain, when the helm was first starboard, doubting whether they had passed the buoy, ran back to the wheel and asked the pilot "why he had altered the ship's course, so as to bring the lights in one," to which the pilot replied, that "they had passed the Bell Buoy, for he had heard the bell on the port quarter." Upon this the captain returned without delay to his post amidships, and immediately afterwards the lookout called aloud "Bell Buoy on the starboard bow." The captain passed the word—"Sway out hard a-starboard; stop the ship." The pilot repeated the order, which was immediately attended to; but before the ship could be stopped, she came with great violence in contact with the buoy, drove it from the moorings, and caused the damage above mentioned.

Upon these facts, which seem to me to contain all that is material to the case—for I purposely omit some minor details, such as the depth of water in which the buoy is moored, and the reasons for and against passing it under ordinary circumstances upon the north or south side, on which nothing here turns—it remains to be determined whether the owners are liable in this action, or whether the responsibility attaches to the pilot in charge of the vessel. In a question of such importance, not only to the dock trustees, but to the shipping interest of this great port, I have thought it right to state the facts at length, especially since sitting here unassisted by those aids to which other tribunals can resort, I am bound to afford the fullest information with respect to the grounds upon which my decision has been founded.

There are one or two questions of doctrine and fact, which have been mooted in the present case by counsel, and which, before addressing myself to the main point at issue between the parties, I think it right briefly to dispose of. The learned counsel for the plaintiffs having, not unnaturally, relied a good deal upon the fact that the position of the Bell Buoy was well known to the captain and crew of the *Baltic*, it was urged on behalf of the defendants that that could not in any way affect their liability, and that, since the owners of the *Baltic* might, if such had been their wish, have employed in the navigation of their vessel to Liverpool a person unacquainted, at least practically, with this port, no additional responsibility can be entailed upon them by the fact that they had selected as their servants those who were personally cognizant of the difficulties of the port. From the proposition they put forward, I feel bound to express my dissent. Masters are responsible for the negligence of their servants in the performance of those duties which by their masters they have been delegated to perform. Knowledge and negligence are correlative terms, and without discussing the obligations of the owners in the selection of officers for their vessels, and one so employed as the *Baltic*, it cannot, I think, be permitted that he who has voluntarily adopted a line of conduct likely to cause mischief, should, when the mischief has occurred, be allowed to assume in his defence the position of one who is ignorant of those obligations, which, with a full knowledge of them, he deliberately disregarded. I assent, also, in part of the case, to the doctrine put forward by the learned counsel for the plaintiff, and expressly enunciated by Dr. Lushington in the case of the *Batavia*, 2 Wm. Robinson. 407. With reference to the presumption in law that when a vessel at anchor and *a fortiori* a permanently stationary vessel, like the Bell Buoy, is run down by another vessel, I hold, with Dr. Lushington, that as between the courses of such vessel, that under way is bound to show, by clear and indisputable evidence, that the accident did not arise from any fault or negligence on her part, and for this obvious reason, that a vessel lying at anchor (or permanently moored) has no means of shifting her position, or escaping collision. "That," he adds, and no doubt correctly, "is not only the doctrine of maritime law, but it is also the doctrine of common law with respect to carriages upon the high road." In this case, then, in order to relieve those on board the *Baltic* from responsibility, it must be clearly shown that the accident did not arise from any fault or negligence upon the part of all or any of them. And as fault and negligence on the part of some one are here admitted, and indeed could not well be

denied, the only matter in dispute is, to whom the liability for such fault and negligence attaches.

Upon another legal point, applicable to this and the other cases in which I have this morning to decide, I adhere also to the doctrine formerly adopted by me and laid down in the case of the *Diana*, v. Wm. Robinson, 134, and of the *Massachusetts*, same volume, 371, and other cases, that where the question is whether the liability attaches to the owners or to the pilot, the vessel doing the damage is *prima facie* responsible for the damage she has occasioned, and the owners, in order to discharge themselves from such liability, must prove that the accident arose entirely from the fault of the pilot, and, if it was occasioned by the joint misconduct or default of the pilot and crew, I am bound to hold that the liability still attaches to the owners.

Having disposed of the general principles, I proceed to inquire, first, what is the nature of the misconduct or default which has been committed, and secondly, to whom is it attributable? It was urged on behalf of the plaintiffs, that the accident was at least in some degree attributed to the want of a proper look-out being kept on board the *Baltic*, in which case, doubtless, upon the authorities being stated, as well as others, the defendants would be responsible for such neglect upon the part of their servants, even although having a duly licensed pilot on board in charge of the vessel. I find upon the evidence no such neglect as that last mentioned, nor, in fact, is the accident in any way attributable to the want of a proper lookout, the buoy having been perceived at the earliest moment, when in such a night and hour it could have been visible, although (owing to the speed at which the vessel was proceeding) at a period too late to avoid, by any other possible exertion, the collision. It was also urged that the captain having taken upon himself, when the buoy was discovered and the alarm given, to order the helm to be starboarded, he, by that interference immediately before the collision, rendered the owners responsible for that which followed upon the execution of the order. Now, if the collision had been in any degree occasioned by the orders of the captain, the responsibility would, no doubt, have fallen upon his masters, the defendants, but the truth is, that the collision occurred not because of, but notwithstanding the execution of the captain's order. That order, when the immediate approach of danger was made known to him, he was not only justified in giving, but, in my opinion, called upon to give. He used his best exertions by ordering the helm to be starboarded, and the vessel to be stopped, to avoid the damage which he knew to be imminent. The pilot at once assented to and repeated the order, so properly given, nor has it been suggested that any other course than this taken at the captain's suggestion could with prudence at that moment have been adopted. No responsibility, therefore, can, in my opinion, attach to the owners either for the alleged want of a proper look-out, or for the interference before-mentioned of the captain. To whose default or misconduct, then, is the accident really attributable? Mr. Lord, the first witness for the plaintiffs, followed, as it seems to me, in the main, by the other nautical gentlemen on the same side, attributes the accident "to the pilot's mistake as to his position, and to the speed at which the vessel was navigated. In exact proportion in which the causes contributed to the result, none of the witnesses has very clearly expressed, nor is it very material to inquire. Had the pilot not mistaken his position, whatever might be the velocity of the vessel, the Bell-buoy would not have been run into, even supposing the mistake to have been made on the part of the pilot, the sound of the bell would, in all probability, had the vessel's rate of approach been less rapid, have reached the ears of those upon the look-out, in time for the crew of the *Baltic* to have materially diminished, and perhaps absolutely averted the consequences which ultimately ensued. The accident having thus proceeded from the pilot's mistake as to his position, combined with the rapid speed at which the vessel was navigated, and from these causes only are the owners responsible or is the pilot alone to blame. For the mistake of the latter, as to his position, it was scarcely argued that the owners can be responsible. Running by time, as it was proved on both sides they had been, under such circumstances neither unusual nor improper, and at a

known velocity, the pilot might reasonably have been expected to be acquainted with the position of the vessel, nor, indeed, does the error appear to have extended to the captain, whose conduct shows a doubt of the conclusion on the point to which the pilot had arrived. It remains only to inquire whether, from the speed at which the Baltic approached the locality of the Bell Buoy, and which, undoubtedly, was one of the main causes of the accidents, the defendants are responsible. I should be sorry to be supposed to throw any doubt upon the doctrine laid down in the case of the *Rose*, 2, Wm. Robinson, p. 1; the *Iron Duke*, same volume, 377; and similar cases. The doctrine is thus laid down—“Although it may be a matter of convenience that steam-vessels should proceed with great rapidity, the law will not justify them in proceeding with such rapidity as that the property and lives of other parties are thereby endangered.” And to that proposition I fully assent. I am disposed further to hold, although at present it is not necessary to decide this question, that if a vessel be navigated at a speed improper with reference to known dangers, and in consequence of said speed any accident occurs to the persons or property of others, although the probability of such an accident could not reasonably have been anticipated, the wrong doer cannot be heard to aver that he could not, in the exercise of ordinary care and caution, have neglected that particular accident to which his admitted negligence has given rise. If, therefore, this had been a case of collision at the entrance to the Victoria Channel, between the *Baltic* and one of the vessels which, in such a situation, she might fairly have expected to meet, and I had found the *Baltic* proceeding at such speed that she could not readily be stopped within a distance clearly short of that at which the approach of such a danger would manifest itself. I should be disposed to say, as at present advised, that I hold the adoption of such speed by order of the captain, or even his acquiescence in it without remonstrance when ordered by the pilot, would render the owners liable for the ensuing consequences. For so holding, the case of the *Europa*, fourteen jurists, 628, would be a sufficient warrant, even if the doctrine did not sufficiently recommend itself without such precedent, as sanctioned alike by legal principles and the common sense of mankind. The present case cannot be then determined. Great as was the velocity at which the *Baltic* was proceeding, the evidence shows that she could have been stopped within a distance far short of that at which the lights of any approaching steamers could, on the night in question, have been observable. It has not been suggested that the neighborhood of the Bell Buoy is one in which sailing vessels would be likely to be found, nor, indeed, considering the state of the wind and tide upon the occasion, was it probable that such vessels, if proceeding from Liverpool at least, would have arrived there. The danger, then, if danger there was, in the speed at which the *Baltic* was proceeding must, I think, considering the nature of the night of the 13th of April, the circumstances of the wind, tide, and weather, and the portion of her voyage during which speed was adopted, be examined with reference to the Bell Buoy itself, and that alone. And we are thus reduced to the single inquiry, were the captain and crew of the *Baltic* in any way to blame for the speed at which, upon the night in question, knowing the position of the beacon, they undoubtedly approached it? Now, with respect to the Bell Buoy itself, the danger could scarcely have been anticipated while the vessel was kept clear, either to the northward or the southward of it, a fact about which, since the buoy is in a line with the two lights formerly mentioned, there can be no doubt upon a night when the lights were clearly visible for miles. When, therefore, with reference still to the Bell Buoy, could the danger of continuing the approach at the speed adopted by the *Baltic* have first suggested itself to a man in the position of the captain, exercising upon such a subject reasonable care and caution?

It may be answered, I think, at the time when the pilot, supposing that he had passed the buoy, and having as he thought heard it sounding upon the port quarter, ordered the helm to be put starboard, so as to close the lights. At the earliest moment in which, with reference to the Bell Buoy, at least danger could reasonably have been anticipated, Capt. Comstock ran aft to inquire of the pilot why he had ordered the ship's course to be altered. Had even no reason been given for such alteration, it was then probably too late to have prevented the

collision which immediately afterwards ensued; but he received an assurance that they had passed the buoy upon the port quarter. He returned at once to his proper position amidships, in immediate communication with the engine-room, and, as I have before intimated, nothing in his subsequent conduct was calculated to involve his owners in the responsibility of the accident. On one point only, that I am aware of, do the conclusions to which I have arrived, as the fact appears to differ from the opinions of the gentlemen professionally acquainted with such subjects as detailed in the evidence before me. These gentlemen seem to lay down that, under no circumstances whatever, should a steamer of the size and power of the *Baltic* be permitted to run from Point Lynas to the neighborhood of the Bell Buoy at a speed of twelve knots an hour. Some of them lay down five and a half knots as the maximum allowed speed. To this general and unqualified proposition, with all due respect for the gentlemen in question, I am not prepared at present to assent. But the decision of that question is not now necessary. Our inquiry is, as I have said, limited to the period of time elapsing between the passing of Point Lynas, when the pilot was taken on board, and the starboarding of the *Baltic's* helm when the pilot supposed he had passed the buoy, and whether between those limits, the speed at which the vessel was navigated was or was not consistent with prudence and sound judgment. I am of opinion that it was not so manifestly improper or imprudent, (a case, to use the words of Dr. Lushington, "of such extreme necessity,") as to require the interference of the captain or crew with the legitimate vocation of the pilot then in charge. I subscribe fully to the principle laid down in the case of the *Diana*, 1, Wm. Robinson, 131, that "the mere fact of taking a pilot on board, under the provisions of the statute, did not exonerate the master and crew from a proper observance of their duty. Although the directions of the pilot may be imperative on them as to the course the vessel is to pursue, the management of the vessel itself is still under the control of the master. It is his duty to secure the safe conduct of the vessel by issuing the necessary orders, and it is the duty of the crew to carry those orders into execution, and for the due performance of their relative duties the master and crew are still respectively responsible." I adhere also to the opinion which I formerly expressed, and which I find expressly sanctioned in the case of the *Lochlibo*, 3, Wm. Robinson, 310, that "there may be circumstances of extreme necessity in their nature, when the master is not only entitled, but called upon to remonstrate against, or even to disobey the orders of the pilot in charge of the vessel, although doubtless all prudent masters will be slow to assume for themselves or their owners a responsibility which might not otherwise attach to them." But while I admit these doctrines to their fullest extent, I hold also with Dr. Lushington, as detailed by him in the case of the *Maria*, 1, Wm. Robinson, 95, that "it would be a most dangerous doctrine to hold, except under the most extraordinary circumstances, that a master would be justified in interfering with a pilot in his proper vocation."

This doctrine, I may add, was upheld by the same gentleman in a subsequent case, that of the *Duke of Sussex*, in the same volume, page 270, which resembles the present case in this, that the collision was between a moving and a stationary vessel. That doctrine is said to be modified, if not contradicted, by some observations of Sir J. Nicholl, in the case of the *Girolimo*, cited in that of the *Lochlibo*, 3, Wm. Robinson, 510; but, in the first place, the observation is a mere *arbitræ dicta*, and Dr. Lushington expressly says that the case of the *Girolimo* is not based upon such grounds; and, secondly, in the case of the *Lochlibo* itself, in which the bare observation of Sir J. Nicholl is relied upon as an argument, Dr. Lushington, in direct terms, adopts the totally adverse doctrine which in the case of the *Maria* he had propounded.

Was it, then, the captain's proper vocation or that of the pilot, to direct the speed at which, under the circumstances of the night in question, the *Baltic* should have been navigated between Point Lynas and the locality of the Bell Buoy? Independently of my own opinion, I find a distinct authority in the case last but one cited, that of the *Maria*. The *Maria*, the vessel proceeded against, was proceeding up the River Tyne to Newcastle. She was towed by a steamer,

(a fact which I mention only to remark that it is admitted to make no distinction in the question of liability,) and had on board in charge of her a duly licensed pilot. The Websters, the vessel injured, was also proceeding up the river to Newcastle, ahead of, and it being in the forenoon of the 11th of May, in full view of all on board the Maria. No blame was attributable to the Websters, and the fault, if fault there was, (a third vessel was alleged to be also blameable as well as the Maria,) "consisted," says Dr. Lushington, "either in proceeding at the northward of the Websters, or in not slackening the speed of the Maria." If the fault lay in proceeding to the northward—here the alleged fault was in starboarding too soon—it was the fault of the pilot, and the owners were not responsible. "If, on the other hand," he continues, "the fault consisted in not slackening the Maria's course, upon whom does the blame attach? Not upon the master, for the conduct of the vessel was with the pilot. And it would be a most dangerous doctrine to hold, except under the most extraordinary circumstances, that the master would be justified in interfering with the pilot in his proper vocation. If the two authorities could so clash, the danger would be materially augmented, and the interest of the owners, which is now protected, both by the general principles of law and a specific enactment, from liability for the acts of the pilot would be most severely prejudiced. If no order was given to care the steamer, the fault was with the pilot and not the master. The master, therefore, in this view of the case, could not be responsible."

Finding, therefore, upon the evidence before me, that the Baltic was in charge of a duly licensed pilot, by whose orders the speed and course were regulated, and that no such extraordinary circumstances are here found as to justify the master in interfering with the pilot in his proper vocation; finding, further, that the orders of the pilot were carefully transmitted and properly executed by the captain and crew of the vessel, I hold the owners exempt from the responsibility now sought to be imposed upon them, and I direct a verdict to be entered for the defendants. Following, however, on this point also, the precedent of the Maria, although I somewhat doubt its applicability to these proceedings. I direct that the present verdict shall be entered without costs.

COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE AND REVIEW.

CONDITION OF THE MONEY MARKET—REVIEW OF THE CALIFORNIA TRADE—FALLING OFF IN RECEIPTS OF GOLD—INTEREST ON STATE BONDS—ACCUMULATION OF PRODUCE IN THE INTERIOR—DELAY IN RESUMPTION OF INTERNAL NAVIGATION—COMPARATIVE DATES OF THE OPENING OF NEW YORK CANALS—STOCK MARKET—MONETARY CRISIS IN ENGLAND AND FRANCE—CONDITION OF THE BANKS—BANK FAILURE IN BOSTON—STATEMENT OF THE NEW YORK BANKS—RECEIPTS AND COINAGE AT THE PHILADELPHIA AND NEW ORLEANS MINTS—IMPORTS AT NEW YORK OF GENERAL MERCHANDISE AND DRY GOODS FOR MARCH, AND FROM JANUARY 1ST—QUARTERLY STATEMENT OF THE RECEIPT OF CERTAIN ARTICLES OF FOREIGN MERCHANDISE—EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS FOR MARCH AND FROM JANUARY 1ST—COMPARATIVE SHIPMENTS OF DOMESTIC PRODUCE, ETC., ETC.

THE causes which have produced the stringency in the money market already noticed, have continued their operation during the month under review, and the pressure has not only been more general, but also more severe. Throughout the interior the street rates for short loans have ruled as high as 2 a 3 per cent a month, while at Boston, New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore and Charleston, borrowers have been found ready to pay 12 per cent per annum, even upon prime securities. As yet but few failures have resulted from this pressure, and

these have been only among speculators in breadstuffs, or large shippers to California. The latter has been the most disastrous trade our merchants have known for many years, but the losses, have been, for the most part, so widely distributed as not to lead to bankruptcy. The history of Commerce presents nothing more astonishing than the pertinacity with which shrewd business men have clung to the Pacific trade, notwithstanding its unfavorable returns. For two years, only here and there an invoice yielded any profit upon its cost and charges, while the San Francisco markets were constantly glutted, and every return steamer brought loud complaints and unmistakable notes of warning. There has been during the last six weeks a falling off in the direct shipments, but this has not yet been sufficient to insure a profit on goods now going forward. The whole character of the Pacific trade must be changed before it will stand on a secure basis. The random shipments from this side must totally cease, and the business be confined to houses devoting their whole attention to the trade, and whose interests shall be consulted at either end of the line. One effect of the unprofitable nature of this trade may be seen in the decreasing receipts of gold. The mines and diggings yield as profusely as ever, but the amount to be returned to Atlantic ports has been curtailed, and the gold has not been sent forward.

In order that the credit of California may not suffer in the eyes of foreign capitalists, we offer a word of explanation in regard to the difficulties connected with the payment of the interest on the debt of that State due January 1st, 1854. The coupons were made payable in New York, and the Treasurer of the State handed the money to a banking house in San Francisco in ample time to be forwarded to New York before the interest was due. The bankers who received the money, instead of making a separate remittance for the specific object, merely gave their agent at New York *authority* to pay the coupons, but forwarded no reliable means for that purpose. Their account being overdrawn, and their credit not undoubted, the agent at New York declined to advance the funds, and thus the coupons were protested. Messrs. Duncan, Sherman & Co., a large private banking house in New York, immediately paid the money for the honor of the State of California, and were not reimbursed until within the last few days. It will thus be seen that the whole difficulty grew out of the diversion of the funds by the parties to whom the State entrusted them. This could all have been avoided by sending the money directly to a responsible house in New York, and we presume that this course will be hereafter adopted.

Many have supposed that the doubt and distrust caused by the threatening aspect of European troubles, have been the chief instruments in producing the stringency in the money market; but other influences have also been at work. Large sums of money have been sent into the interior for the purchase of produce, and there is quite an accumulation at all of the shipping points awaiting the resumption of internal navigation. The latter has been delayed by the unusual severity of the season, so that the capital is locked up to a much later date than originally expected. The Canal Commissioners of New York have announced the opening of the canals of this State for May 1st, a date considerably later than the average of past seasons, as will be seen by the following comparison:—

DATE OF OPENING THE GRAND ERIE CANAL.

Year.	Opened.	Year.	Opened.	Year.	Opened.
1824.....	April 30	1834.....	April 17	1844.....	April 18
1825.....	" 12	1835.....	" 15	1845.....	" 15
1826.....	" 20	1836.....	" 25	1846.....	" 16
1827.....	" 22	1837.....	" 20	1847.....	May 1
1828.....	March 27	1838.....	" 12	1848.....	" 1
1829.....	May 2	1839.....	" 20	1849.....	" 1
1830.....	April 20	1840.....	" 20	1850.....	April 22
1831.....	" 16	1841.....	" 24	1851.....	" 15
1832.....	" 25	1842.....	" 10	1852.....	" 20
1833.....	" 19	1843.....	May 1	1853.....	" 20

When navigation has been resumed and the produce arrives freely at the seaboard, foreign exchange will be more abundantly provided, and the pressure in the money market must be greatly relieved.

The stock market has been depressed in consequence of the increased demand for money, and prices are generally lower; but the stocks are now falling into stronger hands and will be more firmly held.

Our commercial interests must, of course, be more or less affected by the same causes which bear with some severity upon the trade in France and England, but to what extent our markets will sympathize with their embarrassments, yet remains to be seen. Russia is preparing for the contest by prohibiting the export of specie, and by an issue of paper money. If England and France enter the field of strife without some change in their financial policy, the interests of trade must be greatly sacrificed. It is hardly to be supposed that the governments of those countries will wait until the hands of industry are completely paralyzed before they attempt any remedial measures. What these measures will be we do not certainly know, but we can form an opinion of their general character. The remedy, to be effectual, must be one that will supply an increased circulating medium, other than gold and silver. The most radical relief would result from a simultaneous suspension of specie payments by France and England, while the stock of coin on hand was still large, and before the commercial classes had felt the pressure severely. This would raise nominal values 10 a 12 per cent, but would be least troublesome to the majority of the people. Another mode of relief, and one which is likely to be adopted, would be the allowance of a largely extended paper currency upon the present specie basis. This might be accompanied by an issue of Exchequer bills to supply the extraordinary expenses of government; if the latter, however, were made a legal tender in payment of dues, their issue would amount to a virtual suspension of specie payments. Until some course is definitely resolved upon, there can be no stability to commercial affairs on either side of the Atlantic.

The banks in this country have been strengthening themselves against any emergency, and most of them now stand very strong. The Cochrane Bank at Boston, having become involved somewhat in the private affairs of its president, lost the confidence of the community, and the consequent run upon it resulted in its suspension. We apprehend the result will not be very disastrous to the bill-holders, but its affairs are now undergoing legal investigation. Two small banks in Connecticut have also been thrown out by the Suffolk Bank, just as we close this article.

The New York City banks are in a very strong position, the stock of specie being larger, and the total of loans and discounts smaller, than at any previous

time within the last two months. The following will show the weekly averages of the four leading items in their statement:—

WEEKLY AVERAGES OF NEW YORK CITY BANKS.

Week ending.	Average amount of Loans and Discounts.	Average amount of Specie.	Average amount of Circulation.	Average amount of Deposits.
August 6, 1853.....	\$97,899,499	\$9,746,441	\$9,513,053	\$60,579,797
August 13.....	94,633,282	10,653,518	9,451,943	57,457,504
August 20.....	94,074,717	11,082,274	9,389,727	57,307,223
August 27.....	92,387,618	11,319,040	9,427,191	57,431,891
September 3.....	91,741,388	11,268,049	9,554,294	57,502,970
September 10.....	91,108,347	11,380,693	9,597,336	57,545,164
September 17.....	90,190,589	11,860,235	9,666,723	57,612,301
September 24.....	90,092,765	11,340,925	9,477,541	58,312,334
October 1.....	90,149,540	11,231,912	9,521,665	57,968,661
October 8.....	89,128,998	10,266,602	9,673,458	57,985,760
October 15.....	87,837,273	11,330,172	9,464,714	59,068,674
October 22.....	85,367,931	10,303,254	9,388,543	55,748,729
October 29.....	83,400,321	10,866,872	9,300,350	53,335,462
November 5.....	83,092,630	11,771,880	9,492,158	55,500,977
November 12.....	82,882,409	12,823,575	9,287,629	56,201,007
November 19.....	83,717,622	13,691,324	9,151,443	57,446,424
November 26.....	84,802,530	13,343,196	9,032,769	58,673,076
December 3.....	85,824,756	12,830,772	9,153,586	53,435,207
December 10.....	86,708,028	12,493,760	9,075,704	57,838,076
December 17.....	87,865,073	12,166,020	8,939,830	58,312,478
December 24.....	88,766,402	12,074,499	8,872,764	58,154,302
December 31.....	90,162,106	11,058,478	8,927,013	58,963,976
January 7, 1854.....	90,133,887	11,506,124	9,075,926	60,335,362
January 14.....	90,010,012	11,894,453	8,668,344	53,396,956
January 21.....	90,068,738	11,455,156	8,605,235	59,071,252
January 28.....	89,759,465	11,117,958	8,642,677	58,239,577
February 4.....	90,549,577	11,634,653	8,996,657	61,208,466
February 11.....	91,434,022	11,872,126	8,994,083	61,024,517
February 18.....	92,698,085	11,742,384	8,954,464	61,826,669
February 25.....	93,629,716	11,212,693	8,929,314	61,293,645
March 4.....	94,538,421	10,560,400	9,209,830	61,975,675
March 11.....	94,279,994	9,832,483	9,137,555	60,226,533
March 18.....	93,418,929	10,013,456	9,255,781	61,093,605
March 25.....	92,972,711	10,132,246	9,209,406	59,168,178
April 1.....	92,825,024	10,264,009	9,395,820	59,478,149
April 8.....	92,551,808	10,188,141	9,713,215	60,286,839
April 15.....	91,636,274	11,044,044	9,533,998	60,325,037

It will be seen from the above that at no time since the weekly statements were ordered by the Legislature, has the bank movement reached the level at which it stood on that day. The last weekly statement shows about the same footing of circulation and deposits as for the week ending August 6th, while the loans have decreased \$6,000,000, and the specie increased \$1,300,000.

The receipts of gold from California continue light, from causes already specified.

DEPOSITS FOR MARCH.

	Gold.		Silver.	Total.
	From California.	Other sources.		
Philadelphia Mint.....	\$3,867,000	\$115,000	\$147,500	\$4,129,500
New Orleans Mint.....	118,449	10,645	177,821	306,915
Total deposits.....	\$3,985,449	\$125,645	\$325,321	\$4,436,419

GOLD COINAGE.				
	NEW ORLEANS.		PHILADELPHIA.	
	Pieces.	Value.	Pieces.	Value.
Double Eagles.....	118,013	\$2,260,260
Eagles.....	24,012	240,120
Half eagles.....	30,000	\$150,000	49,147	245,735
Quarter eagles.....	20,000	50,000	81,982	204,955
Dollars.....	182,814	182,814
Bars.....	197	626,000
Total gold coinage.....	40,000	\$200,000	451,165	\$3,759,884
SILVER COINAGE.				
Half dollars.....	246,000	\$123,000	232,000	\$116,000
Quarter dollars.....	300,000	75,000	2,264,000	566,000
Dimes.....	180,000	18,000
Half dimes.....	240,000	12,000
Total silver coinage.....	886,000	\$210,000	2,676,000	\$700,000
COPPER COINAGE.				
Cents.....	673,817	\$6,738
Total coinage.....	926,000	\$410,000	3,800,982	\$4,466,622

We noticed in our last, that the returns for the month of February were the first for more than eighteen months which exhibited a comparative decline in the imports of foreign goods, the increase having been more or less rapid, but without interruption, since July, 1852. The month of March also shows a comparative decline, the total receipts of foreign goods for that month in New York being \$2,856,754 below the total for March, 1853. It is, however, \$3,969,172 greater than for March, 1852, and \$3,470,972 greater than for March, 1851, as will appear from the following summary statement:—

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN MERCHANDISE AT NEW YORK FOR THE MONTH OF MARCH.

	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
Entered for consumption.....	\$10,851,142	\$9,302,024	\$15,099,249	\$12,911,744
Entered for warehousing.....	1,181,925	916,519	2,015,011	1,856,688
Free goods.....	982,530	1,843,938	2,051,846	1,344,627
Specie and bullion.....	270,505	525,421	247,722	444,015
Total entered at the port.....	\$13,086,102	\$12,587,902	\$19,413,828	\$16,557,074
Withdrawn from warehouse.....	1,068,437	1,605,849	697,118	1,701,208

The falling off has been greatest in free goods, chiefly in tea and coffee. This makes the total imports at New York from 1st January to 1st March \$3,076,245 below the total for the first three months of 1853; it is still, however, \$14,410,897 above the total for the corresponding period of 1852, and \$6,651,498 above the total for the same time of 1851:—

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN MERCHANDISE AT NEW YORK FOR THREE MONTHS FROM JAN. 1ST.

	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
Entered for consumption.....	\$32,801,667	\$24,911,287	\$41,240,672	\$37,987,865
Entered for warehousing.....	4,034,101	3,201,496	3,669,854	5,052,144
Free goods.....	3,128,216	3,996,343	5,021,992	3,206,196
Specie and bullion.....	644,991	740,450	404,200	1,012,768
Total entered at the port.....	\$40,608,975	\$32,849,576	\$50,336,718	\$47,260,473
Withdrawn from warehouse....	2,992,121	4,979,498	3,064,000	6,544,729

The total entered for warehousing has increased, but the amount withdrawn from warehouse is still larger, so that the stock in bond is reduced. Of the imports, a larger proportion than usual consist of dry goods, the total for March being but 986,150 less than in March, 1853. The amount entered directly for consumption showed a decline of \$1,063,361, but this was partly made up by the increased entries for warehousing. The withdrawals from warehouse show an increase of \$675,356. The receipts of cottons also show a large comparative increase:—

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN DRY GOODS AT NEW YORK FOR THE MONTH OF MARCH.

ENTERED FOR CONSUMPTION.

	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
Manufactures of wool.....	\$1,184,479	\$1,132,921	\$2,065,217	\$1,748,565
Manufactures of cotton.....	1,128,009	1,002,885	1,696,977	2,093,792
Manufactures of silk.....	1,640,577	1,688,099	3,536,156	2,667,715
Manufactures of flax.....	873,251	701,572	1,052,245	826,485
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	399,988	519,964	699,879	653,556
Total	\$5,171,304	\$5,044,941	\$9,050,474	\$7,985,113

WITHDRAWN FROM WAREHOUSE.

	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
Manufactures of wool.....	\$84,552	\$143,427	\$93,278	\$280,999
Manufactures of cotton.....	171,836	227,213	115,078	344,336
Manufactures of silk.....	119,483	193,600	58,471	222,472
Manufactures of flax.....	56,204	140,042	24,261	101,847
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	45,185	50,674	39,025	55,765
Total withdrawn.....	\$477,240	\$756,956	\$330,113	\$1,005,469
Add entered for consumption....	5,171,304	5,044,941	9,050,474	7,985,113
Total thrown upon the market..	\$5,648,544	\$5,801,897	\$9,380,587	\$8,990,582

ENTERED FOR WAREHOUSING.

	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
Manufactures of wool.....	\$126,591	\$164,179	\$211,410	\$304,050
Manufactures of cotton.....	170,125	154,083	191,024	217,413
Manufactures of silk.....	211,348	132,333	254,792	194,159
Manufactures of flax.....	116,799	37,520	38,190	65,792
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	43,892	52,762	39,421	32,634
Total	\$668,255	\$540,877	\$734,837	\$814,048
Add entered for consumption.....	5,171,304	5,044,941	9,050,474	7,985,113
Total entered at the port	\$5,839,559	\$5,585,818	\$9,785,311	\$8,799,161

We also annex a comparative summary of the imports of dry goods for three months from January 1st:—

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN DRY GOODS AT NEW YORK FOR THREE MONTHS, FROM JANUARY 1ST.

ENTERED FOR CONSUMPTION.

	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
Manufactures of wool.....	\$4,008,096	\$3,429,534	\$6,046,760	\$4,906,014
Manufactures of cotton.....	4,419,332	3,249,014	5,417,172	6,110,686
Manufactures of silk.....	8,096,438	6,638,886	9,790,338	8,918,981
Manufactures of flax.....	2,452,783	1,775,288	2,832,162	2,410,232
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	1,859,432	1,320,693	1,775,660	1,942,213
Total.....	\$20,386,161	\$16,413,410	\$25,862,092	\$24,288,126

WITHDRAWN FROM WAREHOUSE.

	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
Manufactures of wool	\$280,555	\$559,464	\$318,740	\$843,657
Manufactures of cotton	629,010	821,461	425,520	1,249,399
Manufactures of silk	366,577	869,684	491,808	1,060,073
Manufactures of flax	235,204	450,465	91,612	413,983
Miscellaneous dry goods	141,800	186,065	143,187	145,223
Total	\$1,653,146	\$2,837,139	\$1,470,817	\$3,712,334
Add entered for consumption....	29,336,181	16,413,410	25,862,092	24,288,126
Total thrown on the market.	\$21,989,827	\$19,260,549	\$27,332,909	\$28,000,460

ENTERED FOR WAREHOUSING.

	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
Manufactures of wool	\$839,093	\$451,782	\$374,342	\$665,882
Manufactures of cotton	565,863	415,570	421,121	949,065
Manufactures of silk	613,715	1,119,867	574,771	842,279
Manufactures of flax	203,556	113,021	55,234	270,259
Miscellaneous dry goods	155,816	122,849	117,271	71,009
Total	\$1,878,043	\$2,223,089	\$1,542,739	\$2,798,494
Add entered for consumption....	20,336,181	16,413,410	25,862,092	24,288,126

Total entered at the port ... \$22,214,224 \$18,636,499 \$27,404,830 \$27,086,620

The last summary above given shows very little difference between the total receipts of dry goods for the last quarter and the corresponding quarter of 1853, although it represents an increase over the same period in either 1851 or 1852. In regard to the imports of merchandise other than dry goods, a comparison of items is almost impossible from the great length of the list; we subjoin, however, a comparative statement embracing a few of the most interesting items of imports at New York from foreign ports for three months from January 1st—(the quantity is given in packages when not specified:)—

	1852.		1853.		1854.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
Brandy pkgs.	8,892	\$238,914	7,745	\$331,237	4,095	\$238,549
Books	489	78,077	699	120,508	441	71,697
Cigars	3,078	453,872	8,118	496,646	3,044	535,397
Coal	9,196	28,924	22,412	65,111	8,231	28,433
Coffee pkgs.	138,156	1,329,833	181,535	1,194,126	85,712	1,049,060
Iron	10,920	330,097	16,899	838,938	11,989	614,853
" hoop bdls.	20,280	21,038	16,239	24,839	8,970	13,691
" pig tons.	5,431	60,001	10,423	151,916	8,780	181,909
" railroad... bars.	126,792	457,111	124,682	909,943	72,498	594,415
" scrap tons.	17	173	647	12,044	784	18,580
" sheet pkgs.	15,096	55,170	50,409	189,004	14,798	96,726
" tubes	3,209	7,255	2,281	7,171	1,706	15,607
" chains, &c.....	873	28,557	2,265	92,784	996	63,279
Molasses	13,726	194,068	13,217	206,138	8,454	111,006
Oils, linseed	2,568	152,770	4,359	291,355	2,270	150,727
Rags	5,799	120,090	8,083	129,179	3,885	69,889
Salt	741	4,628
" tons.	51,065	30,068	24,977	56,841	104,131	63,272
" bush.	29,409	29,771
" sacks.	7,229	57,309	3,039	16,330
Salt-peter pkgs.	8,391	214,239	17,069	310,484	14,979	319,583
Steel	55,920	1,125,042	108,108	1,667,125	68,075	1,167,502
Sugar	266,629	2,502,495	383,812	4,198,880	112,187	1,015,732
Tea	65,334	507,551	129,985	1,068,287	67,690	607,535
Tin	8,572	140,045	6,675	101,957	8,671	145,838
Tobacco	391	611,824	469	638,188	482	775,565
Watches	3,657	182,125	6,890	362,287	2,392	186,523
Wool						

The cash duties do not show a falling off equal to the decline in the imports, owing to the decreased receipts of free goods.

CASH DUTIES RECEIVED AT NEW YORK.

	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
January.....	\$3,511,610 04	\$2,600,562 64	\$3,311,137 37	\$4,379,235 32
February	2,658,535 87	2,286,955 47	3,878,395 47	2,867,294 50
March	3,124,811 39	2,730,369 61	3,935,967 63	3,627,119 49
Total.....	\$9,295,257 30	\$7,617,887 72	\$11,125,500 47	\$10,873,699 31

The exports to foreign ports for March show a large increase at all of the ports, and would have been still larger but for the limited supply of produce at the seaboard. The total at New York, exclusive of specie, is \$1,002,974 greater than for March, 1853; \$1,266,237 greater than for March, 1852; and \$1,715,456 greater than for the same month in 1851. We annex a comparative summary:—

EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS FOR THE MONTH OF MARCH.

	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
Domestic produce	\$8,976,198	\$4,313,245	\$4,705,007	\$5,562,810
Foreign merchandise (free).....	29,121	100,557	29,732	98,191
Foreign merchandise (dutiable)...	316,494	357,230	299,656	376,268
Specie	2,868,861	611,994	592,479	1,466,127
Total exports	\$6,690,674	\$5,383,026	\$5,626,874	\$7,503,396
Total, exclusive of specie	4,321,813	4,771,032	5,034,395	6,037,269

This brings the total, since January 1st, to an amount \$597,511 greater than for the same quarter in 1853; \$6,496,749 greater than for the same period of 1852; and \$6,949,392 greater than the comparative total for 1851.

EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS FOR THREE MONTHS, FROM JANUARY 1st.

	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
Domestic produce	\$9,714,728	\$10,085,484	\$11,020,636	\$16,267,937
Foreign merchandise (free).....	141,635	221,182	135,503	326,149
Foreign merchandise (dutiable)...	1,034,456	1,037,746	736,511	1,246,075
Specie	4,642,831	7,032,495	2,461,178	3,891,533
Total exports	\$15,533,650	\$18,376,907	\$14,353,828	\$21,731,694
Total, exclusive of specie	10,890,819	11,343,412	11,892,650	17,840,161

The exports for April, up to date, will not show the same comparative increase, owing chiefly to the scarcity of produce. The following is a comparative statement:—

EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS OF CERTAIN LEADING ARTICLES OF
DOMESTIC PRODUCE, FROM JANUARY 1ST TO APRIL 15TH:—

	1853.	1854.		1853.	1854.
Ashes—pots.....bbls	1,101	1,806	Naval stores.....bbls	98,590	168,086
pearls.....	168	241	Oils—whale.....galls	17,470	33,514
Beeswax.....lbs	89,385	68,838	sperm.....	159,069	138,637
<i>Breadstuffs—</i>			lard.....	2,628	7,255
Wheat flour....bbls	468,437	441,568	linseed.....	2,834	956
Rye flour.....	400	4,605	<i>Provisions—</i>		
Corn meal.....	16,403	26,599	Pork.....bbls	18,915	19,764
Wheat.....bush	750,611	1,013,892	Beef.....	22,282	23,356
Rye.....		304,062	Cut meats.....lbs	1,492,244	5,425,746
Oats.....	22,895	5,753	Butter.....	432,246	653,944
Barley.....			Cheese.....	1,602,286	595,431
Corn.....	394,722	1,569,004	Lard.....	2,579,179	4,163,039
Candles—mold....boxes	18,772	17,775	Rice.....trcs.	3,849	10,519
sperm.....	1,521	1,873	Tallow.....lbs	466,718	761,229
Coal.....tons	9,123	9,282	Tobacco, crude....pkgs	6,692	11,692
Cotton.....bales	70,432	99,579	Do., manufactured..lbs	1,403,429	732,914
Hay.....	1,416	1,538	Whalebone.....	767,479	818,731
Hops.....	47	117			

How extensive the foreign demand for American produce, and especially for breadstuffs, will be during the opening season, it is, of course, impossible to predict; but there is every reason to expect an active trade up to the date of the next harvest. The supplies which we have sent forward to Great Britain since January 1st are but little larger than for the corresponding period of last year, and as her supplies from other sources are in a measure cut off, she must yet require liberal provision from our stores. As soon as our canals are open, the produce will pour out to the seaboard, and there will be no lack of vessels by that time to carry it away. The French markets have been glutted for a little while, but will soon need a further supply, and at prices which will bring a profit to the shipper. We do not desire for our people any farther advance in price. Dear food is always an evil, and, beyond a handsome return to the producer, no legitimate interest is secured by inflated prices. Speculators in breadstuffs almost always lose, and their disasters meet with but little sympathy from the public. There are many who look with very great anxiety upon the issue of our foreign trade in cereals, predicting a general crash when the fever shall have reached its height. A few dealers will undoubtedly be swamped by grasping after too much; and others, who counted large profits after the first rapid advance, will find the amount greatly reduced by the closing accounts; but there seems to be no ground for any serious apprehensions in regard to the majority of shippers.

Our review closes with the prospect of a dark and troubled future for Europe—but it is not every black cloud which empties itself upon the earth, and even this may pass away without inflicting the injury it foreshadows. At any rate, we on this side of the Atlantic ought to be thankful that it does not threaten in our horizon, and that by common prudence on our part, even if the storm bursts upon another hemisphere, we may escape its violence.

THE NEW YORK COTTON MARKET

FOR THE MONTH ENDING APRIL 17.

PREPARED FOR THE MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE BY UHLHORN & FREDERICKSON, BROKERS,
148 PEARL STREET, NEW YORK.

The month under review opened with fair prospects for those engaged in the trade. Considerable confidence was felt in the maintenance of the rates then current, and there were many who thought that diplomacy would take the place of arms in a settlement of the Eastern question—a decline in breadstuffs, an easy money market, together with steadiness in the Liverpool cotton market, warranted these views; and our market for the first week of the month advanced fully $\frac{1}{4}$ per lb. on quotations of the previous week. The quantity offering was small, and the high rate of freight to Liverpool ($\frac{1}{4}$ d. per lb.) then ruling, and the firmness of cotton holders, caused more inquiry for desirable lists in transitu, which met a ready sale at full prices. The market closed firm at the annexed quotations and the following large sales:—

Export	bales.	4,944	Speculation	bales.	5,436
Home use		4,191	In transitu		2,330
Total sales during the week					16,901

PRICES ADOPTED MARCH 20TH FOR THE FOLLOWING QUALITIES:—

	Upland.	Florida.	Mobile.	N. O. & Texas.
Ordinary	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$
Middling	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	10 $\frac{1}{2}$
Middling fair	11	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	11 $\frac{1}{2}$
Fair	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	12 $\frac{1}{2}$

The demand continued good for the greater part of the second week of the month, when, owing to the absence of foreign advices, which were not received till Friday, some little irregularity in prices took place, and the Pacific's accounts not being as satisfactory as looked for, a decline occurred on most grades of $\frac{1}{4}$ per lb.; still holders were not free sellers, and the decrease in the receipts then amounting to 632,000 bales, imparted confidence to many that prices would again rally. The market closed dull, however, at the following quotations:—

Export	bales.	3,518	Speculation	bales.	2,634
Home use		2,971	In transitu		610
Total sales during the week					9,733

PRICES ADOPTED MARCH 27TH FOR THE FOLLOWING QUALITIES:—

	Upland.	Florida.	Mobile.	N. O. & Texas.
Ordinary	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$
Middling	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	10	10 $\frac{1}{2}$
Middling fair	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	11	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	11 $\frac{1}{2}$
Fair	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	12 $\frac{1}{2}$

For the week ending April 3d, notwithstanding the continued unfavorable advices from abroad, our market was but little affected. A slight decline on Middling qualities was alone observable. The sales of the week were to a fair extent, our own spinners and speculators being the principal operators—exporters taking only 845 bales. Reduced limits, both on orders and advances, from the other side, and a stringent money market here, tended to chill the ardor of shippers, and caused them to pause.

In regard to the amount taken for home consumption since the first of last September, we learn, from tables before us made up to this date, (April 1st,) that our manufacturers, although actively employed, have taken from this crop 107,000 bales *less* than for the same time the previous year. This fact proves that they must now be very short of stock, and that they commenced the year with a larger amount on hand than usual. It is likewise certain that their requirements this year will exceed that of any former year, and the amount they will require in addition to the above deficiency must tell upon our deficient crop, as compared with the previous one. Annexed are the sales and quotations, the market closing heavy:—

Export.....bales.	845	Speculation.....bales.	2,888
Home use.....	2,700	In transitu.....	1,662
Total sales during the week.....			8,090

PRICES ADOPTED APRIL 8D FOR THE FOLLOWING VARIETIES:—

	Upland.	Florida.	Mobile.	N. O. & Texas.
Ordinary.....	8½	8½	8½	8½
Middling.....	9½	9½	9½	10½
Middling fair.....	10½	11	11½	11½
Fair.....	11½	11½	11½	12½

The week ending April 10th was one of extreme depression in our market; the sales made were at irregular rates, but generally at a decline of ¼c. a ½c. per lb. on all grades. The European accounts received per Baltic cast a gloom over the market, which even the above reduction in prices failed to dispel, and the market for the week closed heavy at the following quotations:—

Export.....bales.	1,655	Speculation.....bales.	2,190
Home use.....	1,672	In transitu.....	2,168
Total sales during the week.....			7,670

PRICES ADOPTED APRIL 10TH FOR THE FOLLOWING QUALITIES:—

	Upland.	Florida.	Mobile.	N. O. & Texas.
Ordinary.....	8	8	8	8
Middling.....	9½	9½	9½	9½
Middling fair.....	10½	10½	11½	11
Fair.....	11½	11½	11½	12½

The depression of the previous week, and a still greater irregularity in prices, has been the feature of the last week of the month under review. The continued decline in the Liverpool market, and England's declaration of war against Russia, has completely unsettled public opinion as regards the future course of the staple. The sales of the week were generally at a decline of ¼c. per lb. on those of the previous week, and at this reduction but little interest is manifested to engage in cotton. Our market closes unsteady, and the few sales making are at the following quotations:—

Export.....bales.	1,068	Speculation.....bales.	2,161
Home use.....	2,212	In transitu.....	72
Total sales during the week.....			5,513

PRICES ADOPTED APRIL 17TH FOR THE FOLLOWING VARIETIES:—

	Upland.	Florida.	Mobile.	N. O. & Texas.
Ordinary.....	7½	7½	7½	7½
Middling.....	8½	8½	8½	9
Middling fair.....	10	10½	10½	10½
Fair.....	10½	10½	10½	11½

JOURNAL OF BANKING, CURRENCY, AND FINANCE.

DIVIDENDS OF BANKS IN BOSTON.

The following is a list of dividends declared, payable by the Boston banks on the first Monday of April, 1854, compared with the previous dividends:—

	Capital March '54.	1852.		1853.		1854.	Amount.
		April.	Oct.	April.	Oct.	April.	
Atlantic.....	\$500,000	4	4	4	4	4	\$20,000
Atlas.....	500,000	3½	3½	3½	3½	3½	17,500
Blackstone.....	350,000	3	4	4	4	4	14,000
Boston (par \$50).....	900,000	4	4	4	4	4	36,000
Boylston.....	300,000	4½	4½	4½	5	5	15,000
Broadway.....	100,000	New, December 20, 1853.				
City.....	1,000,000	3½	3½	3½	3½	3½	35,000
Cochituate.....	250,000	4	4	4	4	4	10,000
Columbian.....	500,000	3½	3	4	3½	3½	17,500
Commerce.....	2,000,000	4	4	4	4	4	80,000
Eagle.....	700,000	3½	3½	3½	4	4	28,000
Eliot.....	300,000	New, October 6, 1853.					9,000
Exchange.....	1,000,000	4	4	4	4	4	40,000
Faneuil Hall.....	500,000	3	4	4	4	4	20,000
Freeman's.....	350,000	4½	4½	4½	4½	5	17,500
Globe.....	1,000,000	4	4	4	4	4	40,000
Granite.....	900,000	4	4	4	4	4	36,000
Grocers'.....	500,000	4	4	4	4	4	20,000
Hamilton.....	500,000	4	4	4	4	4	20,000
Howard.....	500,000	New, August 23, 1853.					20,000
Market (par \$70).....	560,000	5	5	5	5	5	28,000
Massachusetts (par \$250)....	800,000	3	3	3	3	3 1-5	25,600
Mechanics'.....	200,000	4	4	4	4	4	8,000
Merchants'.....	4,000,000	4	4	4	4	4	160,000
National.....	300,000	New, August 1, 1853.					12,000
New England.....	1,000,000	4	4	4	4	4	40,000
North.....	750,000	3½	3½	3½	3½	4	30,000
North America.....	750,000	4	4	3½	4	4	30,000
Shawmut.....	500,000	4	4	4	4	4	20,000
Shoe & Leather.....	1,000,000	4	4	4	4	4	40,000
State (par \$60).....	1,800,000	3½	3	3½	3½	3½	63,000
Suffolk.....	1,000,000	5	5	5	5	5	50,000
Traders'.....	600,000	4	3½	4	4	4	24,000
Tremont.....	1,250,000	4	4	4	4	4	50,000
Union.....	1,000,000	4	4	4	4	4	40,000
Washington.....	500,000	3½	3	3	3½	4	20,000
Webster.....	1,500,000	New, August 15, 1853.					3½
							\$1,088,600

The above table, from the *Traveler*, includes five new banks which were chartered by the legislature last year, all of which divide at this time, except the Broadway, (South Boston,) which did not commence business until January, 1854, but has earned 2 per cent. The Eliot Bank has been in operation about five months, the National about eight months, the Howard Banking Company seven months, and the Webster, seven months and a half. The amount of bank capital last October was \$24,810,000, the amount in April is \$30,160,000—being an increase in six months of \$5,350,000. The increased amount of dividends over last October is \$303,350.

The Mount Wallaston Bank, Quincy, has declared a dividend of 4 per cent. This is a new bank, and has been in operation six months. The Randolph Bank has declared a semi-annual dividend of 5 per cent.

CONDITION OF THE BANKS OF OHIO IN 1854.

STATEMENT OF THE CONDITION OF THE SEVERAL BANKS IN THE STATE OF OHIO, TAKEN FROM THE RETURNS MADE TO THE AUDITOR OF STATE, ON THE FIRST MONDAY OF FEBRUARY, 1854.

RESOURCES.

	INDEPENDENT BANKS.			Bonds deposited with State Treasurer.	Total resources.
	Notes and bills discounted.	Specie.	Eastern deposits.		
Bank of Geauga...	\$205,619 40	\$21,206 26	\$48,854 16	\$121,651 03	\$416,941 20
Canal B'k Clevel'd.	155,706 42	20,464 03	39,418 89	82,970 00	362,240 07
City B'k Clevel'd.	181,832 54	18,272 17	29,948 89	94,000 00	329,160 96
City B'k Columb's.	331,096 67	27,980 12	32,181 08	183,255 00	765,617 92
City B'k Cincinnati.	66,917 37	5,719 63	10,442 38	50,000 00	286,159 93
Com'rcial B'k Cin.	336,581 66	6,203 86	9,481 44	5,000 00	418,747 17
Franklin B'k Zanes.	279,154 60	29,963 34	47,216 31	144,450 00	573,383 78
Mahoning Co. B'k.	204,602 24	24,398 91	30,515 29	105,416 46	377,183 66
Sandusky City B'k	145,713 22	8,269 86	10,504 99	72,600 00	375,735 76
Seneca Co. Bank...
West'n Res'rve B'k	291,469 81	63,927 28	42,124 84	225,505 64	659,459 28
Independ't B'ks	2,218,693 93	226,355 46	292,688 27	1,084,848 13	4,593,629 67

OHIO BRANCHES OF STATE BANK.

				SAFETY FUND.	
Athens	\$291,370 53	\$42,258 37	\$17,613 25	\$20,000 00	\$386,747 61
Akron	293,653 14	42,138 40	43,114 13	20,000 00	471,761 76
Belmont	287,947 48	41,464 56	41,992 37	20,000 00	467,892 67
Chillicothe	645,251 98	78,843 54	62,494 96	41,250 00	889,134 56
Com'rcial, C'l'v'd.	596,766 99	79,062 75	102,453 66	31,250 80	981,378 51
Com'rcial, Toledo.	399,378 68	50,389 28	81,585 40	27,500 00	637,175 76
Dayton	238,912 57	38,195 00	21,140 87	30,599 00	362,479 61
Delaware Co.	222,135 72	39,733 34	67,683 31	18,700 00	411,015 05
Exchange	363,313 96	48,374 64	28,074 97	23,750 00	523,350 09
Farmers', Asht'b'la	250,730 58	39,942 24	31,628 28	20,000 00	376,906 91
Farmers', Mansf'd	246,261 08	40,567 54	30,261 60	20,000 00	373,901 57
Farmers', Ripley..	228,793 75	42,264 88	43,166 68	20,000 00	380,194 03
Farmers', Salem..	235,873 94	41,546 27	43,295 62	20,000 00	385,569 64
Franklin, Columbus	464,065 82	68,741 49	78,103 47	31,250 00	701,692 91
Guernsey	229,794 34	44,444 58	38,493 61	20,000 00	351,799 27
Harrison Co.	301,257 49	42,107 30	28,992 30	20,000 00	399,897 28
Hocking Valley ..	274,151 33	48,938 11	58,172 74	20,000 00	437,801 80
Jefferson	279,408 14	45,021 29	27,845 86	20,000 00	430,511 26
Knox Co.	231,291 44	52,455 61	16,603 79	20,000 00	355,887 33
Logan	290,815 29	40,181 92	22,431 61	20,000 00	400,637 49
Lorain	159,319 23	45,264 25	22,838 20	19,860 00	262,875 42
Mad River Valley.	335,688 42	40,526 70	33,227 63	20,000 00	467,510 26
Marietta	257,820 12	42,118 35	37,595 85	20,000 00	409,552 03
Mech's & Traders'.	304,913 64	32,522 83	9,453 92	17,000 00	510,565 15
Merchants'	290,425 11	54,563 11	56,728 51	23,750 00	504,765 89
Miami Co.	255,210 72	45,066 34	17,677 02	20,000 00	375,851 67
Mt. Pleasant	225,043 11	41,305 96	34,183 92	20,000 00	349,392 66
Muskingum	273,500 10	40,187 08	30,288 44	20,000 00	409,248 49
Norwalk	329,612 47	46,619 27	32,352 55	23,750 00	481,979 80
Piqua	249,211 05	58,648 64	29,369 74	20,000 00	415,194 77
Portage Co.	251,859 82	47,421 39	17,334 97	20,450 00	374,551 88
Portsmouth	14,323 12	40,058 49	124,668 28	20,000 00	274,244 31
Preble Co.	198,445 33	41,689 10	24,021 43	20,000 00	363,985 48
Ross Co.	490,446 15	49,406 12	32,557 14	27,500 00	666,747 74
Summit Co.	256,874 14	42,358 47	22,237 91	20,000 00	379,626 45
Toledo
Union	444,483 19	54,049 27	50,352 50	27,500 00	603,148 06
Wayne Co.	242,883 80	36,072 49	34,626 02	18,000 00	364,984 55
Xenia	230,597 78	41,114 41	20,581 54	27,600 00	403,318 79

State Branches. 11,181,838 56 1,765,708 23 1,505,274 05 849,609 80 17,348,630 36

OLD BANKS.

	Notes and bills discounted.	Specie.	Eastern deposits.	Bonds deposited with Auditor of State.	Total resources.
Bank of Circleville	618,458 87	101,399 18	212,287 77	974,353 99
Clinton B'k Colum.
Lafayette B'k Cin.
B'k of Massillon
O. Life Insurance & Trust Company.	2,096,105 57	84,405 87	2,580,495 47
Total Old B'ks.	2,714,559 44	185,805 05	212,287 77	3,554,849 46

FREE BANKS.

Bank of Com., Old.	\$59,337 02	\$9,656 28	\$12,559 20	\$58,387 82	\$158,764 04
B'k of Marion	57,165 71	22,993 80	12,927 22	163,066 62	269,486 56
Champ'gn Co., Ur.	98,740 87	7,023 98	6,107 46	53,734 50	199,764 63
Frklin. Portage Co.	45,176 89	5,921 50	21,620 48	43,967 41	118,186 33
Forest City, Clev'd	124,533 89	4,452 57	16,124 17	13,000 00	193,818 48
Iron B'k of Ironton	72,617 57	9,489 15	3,932 26	55,000 00	196,188 60
Merchants', Massil.	82,518 65	12,712 77	16,157 72	72,550 12	217,317 39
Miami Val., Day'n.	1,879 40	15,666 00	1,445 28	150,133 03	206,803 63
Pickaway Co., Cir.	507,173 24	18,008 67	41,810 58	91,087 76	641,001 83
Savings Bk., Cin..	117,501 55	13,536 48	16,997 79	20,000 00	461,524 16
Springfield B'k...	136,312 08	10,147 62	11,878 91	80,029 07	276,576 37
Stark Co., Canton.	24,077 67	7,384 46	11,955 90	38,920 50	90,883 95
Union, Sand'sky C.	138,134 34	4,202 72	15,271 32	34,002 67	306,713 79
Free Banks	1,265,168 88	141,196 00	188,238 24	873,879 50	3,257,029 75
Grand total	17,380,255 81	2,319,064 74	2,198,488 33	2,808,337 43	28,784,139 24

LIABILITIES.

INDEPENDENT BANKS.

	Capital Stock.	Circulation.	Safety Fund Stock.	Due to Indi- vidual Depositors.	Total Liabilities.
Bank of Geauga.....	\$50,000	\$113,770	\$121,651 03	\$83,854 80	\$416,941 20
Canal Bank, Cleveland..	50,000	80,726	50,000 00	116,218 73	362,240 07
City Bank, Cleveland...	50,000	96,393	100,000 00	58,846 82	329,160 96
City Bank, Columbus...	148,830	182,944	260,421 00	154,097 92	765,617 92
City Bank, Cincinnati..	83,000	48,934	50,000 00	96,027 49	285,159 93
Commercial, Cincinnati.	50,000	5,360	5,000 00	241,819 74	448,747 17
Franklin B'k, Zanesville.	100,000	139,226	144,450 00	162,235 61	573,383 78
Mahoning, Youngstown	50,000	97,888	146,445 00	73,234 75	377,183 66
Sandusky City Bank...	62,500	70,996	72,600 00	116,885 03	375,735 75
Seneca Co'ty B'k, Tiffin
Western Reserve, Wa'n	75,000	205,850	225,505 64	133,658 85	659,459 23
Total, Independen B'ks.	719,330	1,042,087	1,176,072 67	1,236,679 74	4,593,629 67

OLD BANKS.

Bank of Circleville. ...	\$200,000	\$447,615	\$236,039 03	\$974,353 99
Clinton B'k, Columbus.
Lafayette B, Cincinnati
Bank of Massillon
Ohio Life Insurance & Trust Company	611,226	8,640	826,271 68	2,580,495 47
Total, Old Banks	811,226	451,255	1,062,310 71	3,554,849 46

OHIO BRANCHES OF STATE BANK.

	Capital Stock.	Circulation.	Safety Fund at credit of Board of Control.	Due to Individual Depositors.	Total Liabilities.
Athens.....	\$100,000	\$194,656	\$65,603 91	\$386,747 61
Akron	100,000	185,475	148,284 97	471,716 76
Belmont, Bridgeport ..	100,000	198,523	\$575 00	153,510 53	467,892 57
Chillicothe.....	250,000	374,479	1,500 00	183,875 19	889,134 56
Commercial, Cleveland.	175,000	278,147	400,015 05	981,378 51
Commercial, Toledo...	150,000	252,817	152,445 11	637,175 76
Dayton	107,000	177,482	1,050 00	48,881 61	362,479 61
Delaware County	94,500	179,838	1,300 00	110,869 38	411,015 05
Exchange, Columbus...	125,000	229,972	129,782 22	523,350 09
Farmers', Ashtabula...	100,000	180,732	447 00	75,331 85	376,906 91
Farmers', Mansfield...	100,000	189,191	1,900 00	60,633 49	378,901 57
Farmers', Ripley	100,000	199,897	1,095 00	62,879 35	380,149 03
Farmers', Salem.....	100,000	194,227	790 00	69,390 24	385,566 64
Franklin, Columbus...	175,000	287,008	500 00	200,507 13	701,602 91
Guernsey, Washington.	100,000	189,707	1,650 00	46,210 01	351,799 27
Harrison County, Cadiz.	100,000	190,684	400 00	87,997 92	399,897 23
Hocking Valley, Lanco	100,000	199,834	553 00	118,894 37	437,801 80
Jefferson, Steubenville.	100,000	192,669	122 00	106,975 94	430,511 26
Knox Co'ty, Mt. Vernon.	100,000	186,687	1,700 00	34,242 24	385,887 33
Logan	100,000	199,715	250 00	78,489 61	400,637 49
Lorain, Elyria.....	74,875	123,693	1,560 00	41,264 78	262,875 42
Mad River, Springfield.	100,000	183,217	1,175 00	155,373 07	467,510 26
Marietta	100,000	196,875	1,000 00	92,156 90	409,552 03
Mechanics & Traders' O	100,000	93,142	246,784 65	510,565 15
Merchants, Cleveland..	125,000	220,952	112,132 52	504,765 99
Miami County, Troy ..	100,000	189,594	1,159 29	65,733 18	375,351 67
Mount Pleasant	100,000	199,955	2,300 00	27,601 46	349,392 66
Muskingum, Zanesville.	100,000	194,095	1,595 00	78,259 69	409,248 49
Norwalk	125,000	226,938	4,200 00	64,075 39	481,979 80
Piqua	100,000	197,500	6,102 20	96,075 54	415,194 77
Portage Co'ty, Ravenna	103,000	192,439	64,986 94	374,551 88
Portsmouth.....	100,000	160,275	6,303 48	274,244 31
Preble County, Eaton..	100,000	197,169	2,250 00	49,867 69	363,985 48
Ross Co'ty, Chillicothe	150,000	256,320	1,200 00	222,149 98	666,747 74
Summit C., Cuyahoga F	100,000	197,874	2,577 70	57,895 84	379,626 45
Toledo.....
Union, Massillon.....	150,000	264,000	900 00	139,399 68	603,143 06
Wayne Co'ty, Wooster.	90,000	162,090	4,200 00	83,115 22	364,984 55
Xenia.....	100,000	178,611	2,500 00	115,400 26	409,318 79
Total, State Branches.	4,294,175	7,716,479	46,553 19	4,052,896 39	17,348,680 36

FREE BANKS.

B. of Commerce, Clev'd.	\$25,000	\$37,111	\$72,891 24	\$158,764 04
Bank of Marion	100,000	115,505	50,257 47	269,486 56
Champaign Cy., Urbana	25,240	40,239	\$25,860 00	94,969 74	199,764 33
Franklin Bank, Franklin	25,000	41,498	42,000 00	9,145 45	118,186 38
Forest City Bk., Cleve'd	95,200	10,416	79,433 28	193,818 48
Iron Bank of Ironton..	25,000	32,240	39,850 00	93,866 48	196,188 60
Merchants' B., Massillon	60,000	44,756	95,962 26	217,317 39
Miami Valley, Dayton.	70,000	125,633	11,170 63	206,803 63
Pickaway C., Circleville	100,000	50,699	62,650 00	300,958 99	541,001 82
Savings Bk., Cincinnati.	25,000	15,847	242,224 71	461,524 16
Springfield Bank	25,000	55,334	75,000 00	112,985 84	276,576 87
Stark County, Canton .	30,000	33,244	15,919 82	90,883 95
Union, Sandusky City .	115,000	26,665	151,934 71	306,713 70
Total Free Banks.....	720,440	629,187	245,360 00	1,331,719 62	3,237,029 75

Grand Total 6,545,171 9,339,008 1,467,985 86 7,683,606 46 28,734,139 24

RELATIVE VALUE OF THE REAL AND PERSONAL ESTATE IN THE CITY AND COUNTY OF NEW YORK, AS ASSESSED IN 1852 AND 1853.

DERIVED FROM THE REPORT OF HON. A. C. FLAGG, CONTROLLER OF THE CITY.

Wards.	Assessments of 1852.		Assessments of 1853.		Totals.		Increase.		Total Increase.		Tax levied, 1853.
	Real estate.	Personal estate.	Real estate.	Personal estate.	1852.	1853.	Real estate.	Personal estate.	Real estate.	Personal estate.	
1	\$30,828,183	\$40,671,503	\$31,919,133	\$49,008,060	\$71,499,686	\$80,927,198	\$1,090,950	\$8,336,556	\$9,427,506	\$8,998,851	
2	15,999,725	9,947,672	18,844,750	4,759,207	18,947,397	23,603,957	2,845,025	1,811,534	4,656,559	291,830	
3	16,686,300	9,769,472	18,702,600	10,504,646	26,425,772	29,207,246	2,046,300	785,178	2,781,473	360,488	
4	8,407,420	1,571,567	8,825,320	1,766,794	9,978,387	10,592,114	417,900	195,227	613,127	130,726	
5	10,738,400	2,490,550	12,864,350	2,669,803	13,228,950	15,538,653	2,125,950	178,753	2,304,703	191,716	
6	8,104,850	1,803,250	9,357,150	1,964,314	9,408,100	11,221,464	1,152,300	661,064	1,813,364	138,496	
7	11,757,490	2,746,575	11,963,085	3,123,790	14,504,065	15,036,375	205,395	377,215	582,810	186,195	
8	12,939,960	1,706,573	14,705,200	2,492,616	14,646,533	17,197,815	1,766,240	786,042	2,551,282	212,251	
9	11,795,800	1,727,643	12,519,150	1,961,393	13,523,443	14,480,543	723,350	233,749	957,099	178,708	
10	6,851,300	1,106,250	7,791,850	1,140,300	7,957,350	8,952,150	940,550	34,050	974,600	110,237	
11	6,897,200	539,831	7,228,300	555,551	7,437,031	7,783,851	331,100	15,720	346,820	96,056	
12	3,888,896	518,100	5,609,272	877,500	4,408,996	6,486,772	1,720,376	359,400	2,079,776	69,458	
13	4,699,900	552,505	4,838,700	624,158	5,252,405	5,462,858	138,800	*	210,452	67,417	
14	8,133,500	2,335,927	9,194,600	2,290,454	10,469,427	11,485,054	1,061,100	1,794,238	1,015,627	141,749	
15	19,245,250	16,826,945	20,257,600	17,621,239	36,072,195	37,878,329	1,012,350	1,794,238	2,806,633	467,512	
16	11,375,139	1,608,225	12,858,550	1,899,568	12,983,364	14,758,118	1,483,410	291,343	1,774,754	182,133	
17	18,186,850	2,436,900	14,502,930	3,056,250	15,623,750	17,559,180	1,316,080	619,350	1,935,430	216,671	
18	33,886,010	8,194,800	44,720,255	11,987,600	42,080,310	56,707,355	10,834,245	3,792,800	14,627,045	698,103	
19	9,878,380	255,000	10,138,380	448,000	10,138,380	17,432,000	7,105,620	193,000	7,298,620	189,928	
20	7,916,200	210,750	11,006,000	283,400	8,126,950	11,349,400	3,149,800	72,650	3,222,450	139,247	
	\$253,186,753	\$98,520,042	\$294,652,795	\$119,034,137	\$851,706,795	\$413,686,932	\$41,466,041	\$20,559,567	\$61,980,137	\$5,067,275	

RATE OF TAX FOR 1853.

County rate	\$1,060 03
Lamp rate	75 85
Street rate	98 88
Full rate	\$1,234 26

Total valuation in the County	\$413,686,932 94
Total valuation in the Lamp District	390,831,850 94
Total valuation south of Forty-Second street...	391,308,610 94

* Decrease of personal estate, \$45,472 03

CONDITION OF THE BANKS OF SOUTH CAROLINA.

The following table will show the discounts, deposits, circulation, and specie, on the 1st of March, 1854, of the banks of South Carolina, which have accepted of the provisions of the act of December, 1840:—

	Discounts.	Deposits.	Circulation.	Specie.
State South Carolina.....	\$1,922,739	\$486,756	\$1,744,805	\$188,792
Branch, Columbia.....	997,127	185,732	5,075
South-West Railroad.....	109,084	339,247	440,770	64,714
Planters' & Mechanics'.....	1,138,282	282,339	482,965	165,336
Union, Charleston.....	788,687	281,252	393,860	111,106
State of South Carolina.....	580,123	415,316	565,336	120,732
South Carolina.....	702,292	265,263	366,308	27,766
Bank Charleston.....	2,162,259	622,031	2,093,046	341,435
Farmers' & Exchange.....	360,062	98,015	818,075	124,498
Hamburg.....	185,407	40,235	998,337	139,644
Commercial, Columbia.....	780,202	177,107	479,350	98,079
Newberry.....	119,723	16,626	476,805	30,694
Planters', Fairfield.....	93,212	31,868	220,240	22,122
Exchange, Columbia.....	122,924	14,186	631,005	57,393
Mechanics, Cheraw.....	297,805	23,288	527,344	50,363
Chester.....	151,905	15,949	182,020	57,896
Camden.....	123,757	28,610	390,495	43,481
	<u>\$10,680,590</u>	<u>3,323,820</u>	<u>10,809,761</u>	<u>1,649,116</u>

THE THREE GREAT MINTS OF THE WORLD.

The *London Economist* gives the annexed statement of the operations of the three great mint establishments of the world—England, France, and the United States—during the year 1853:—

COINAGE OF THE UNITED STATES.

	Pieces.	Value in Dollars.
Gold.....	7,252,576	51,888,880
Silver.....	55,751,068	1,570,514
Copper.....	6,770,825	67,059
Total.....	<u>69,175,460</u>	<u>55,808,513</u>

COINAGE IN ENGLAND.

	Pieces.	Value in Sterling.
Gold.....	13,396,789	11,952,394
Silver.....	25,187,592	701,551
Copper.....	12,813,804	9,073
Total.....	<u>51,308,185</u>	<u>12,663,008</u>

COINAGE IN FRANCE.

	Pieces.	Value in Franks.
Gold.....	17,404,846	330,463,463
Silver.....	5,090,236	20,089,778
Copper.....	30,869,285	1,974,939
Total.....	<u>53,364,367</u>	<u>352,528,180</u>

In the three principal mints of the world there was therefore coined, (in pounds sterling,) in 1853:—

	Gold.	Silver.	Copper.	Total.
United States.....	10,377,776	1,570,514	13,412	11,901,702
London.....	11,952,391	704,544	9,073	12,666,008
Paris.....	13,218,536	803,588	78,996	14,101,120
Total coinage.....	<u>35,548,703</u>	<u>3,078,646</u>	<u>101,481</u>	<u>38,728,830</u>

The total amount of coin of all kinds coined during the year in the three mints, was £38,728,830, which consisted of no fewer than 174,448,021 pieces—or in American

money the total coinage of the three mints was \$193,644,150. When we consider the complaints made in regard to the scarcity of coin, we cannot help asking the question, where has this immense amount of money gone to! In the three countries, great complaints were made during the year of the scarcity of coin. The *Economist* answers the question in not only a satisfactory but a pleasing manner. It says that this enormous amount of coinage, and the complaints still heard of an insufficient currency to conduct the domestic transactions of these great countries, "points to an increase of trade and activity in the productive industry, without any parallel in the history of the world."

EXPENSES OF THE UNITED STATES MINT.

The Washington *Union* publishes officially the following statement contained in a report from the Director of the Mint to the Secretary of the Treasury, in answer to a call from the latter, of the charges accruing upon, and the expenses incurred in, coining at Philadelphia for the past six years. For the first five years mentioned in the statement—namely, to 31st December, 1852—the actual expenses over and above the charges amounted to \$305,812 90—being an average expense to the United States, during that period, of \$61,162 58 annually. During the past year—namely, to 31st December, 1853—the coinage at Philadelphia, instead of being an expense, has been a source of profit; the sum of \$102,420 96 having been realized therefrom, over and above the expenses.

MINT OF THE UNITED STATES, }
Philadelphia, March 29, 1854. }

SIR:—In reply to your letter of the 28th instant, I send you the following statement, showing the total receipts, as well as the total expenses of the mint, and the net cost or gain, as the result for each year:—

	Total expenses.	Total receipts.			
1848.....	\$61,938 07	\$17,796 19	Net cost for	1848.....	\$44,141 88
1849.....	89,732 56	80,771 24	do	1849.....	58,861 32
1850.....	245,077 38	178,791 84	do	1850.....	71,285 54
1851.....	440,906 23	350,089 46	do	1851.....	90,816 77
1852.....	371,296 64	330,589 25	do	1852.....	40,707 39
1853.....	427,643 99	530,064 95	Net profits for	1853.....	102,420 96

I have the honor to be, very respectfully, your faithful servant,

JAMES ROSS SNOWDEN, Director.

HON. JAMES GUTHRIE, Secretary of the Treasury.

COINS ON HAND AT THE UNITED STATES MINT.

By a report made to the Treasury Department, it appears that the following denominations of gold and silver coins were on hand at the Mint of the United States, Philadelphia, April 1, 1854:—

GOLD.		SILVER.	
Double eagles.....	\$805,000 00	Dollars.....	\$11,295 00
Eagles.....	240,000 00	Half dollars.....	125,200 00
Half eagles.....	245,000 00	Quarter dollars.....	433,700 00
Quarter eagles.....	76,580 00	Dimes.....	545,000 00
Dollars.....	34,000 00	Half dimes.....	57,700 00
Bars.....	79,199 00	Remnants, &c.....	478 82
Remnants, &c.....	16,772 10		
	\$1,492,551 10		\$873,373 82

Total balance on hand at Philadelphia Mint, April 1, 1854, \$2,365,924 92.

The amount of dollars is \$873,373 82; and it may be well to remind the public, that those desiring silver change can obtain it in exchange for gold, in sums of not less than \$100, and in such denominations as they may prefer.

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

COMMERCE OF THE SANDWICH ISLANDS.

HONOLULU, February, 1, 1854.

To FREEMAN HUNT, *Editor of the Merchants' Magazine*.—

DEAR SIR:—Annexed herewith you will please find Custom-house Statistics for 1853, made up by the Collector-general, Warren Goodale, Esq. By the recapitulation you will note that the imports of last year exceed those of 1852 in value, to amount of \$522,082 64, but do not equal those of 1851 by \$541,870 70. In handing you these annual returns, it is very unsatisfactory not to be able to report favorably concerning the agricultural and commercial condition of this kingdom.

During the past year there has been but little animation in the trade at the Islands; our market has been much overstocked, and merchandise generally has only found sale at unremunerative rates. The smallpox that first made its appearance in May last, ran a most fearful course throughout this group, and the number of deaths from that disease since it first broke out is estimated at near 6,000, being a decrease in the native population of over 8 per cent. The retail trade was very much affected by the sickness, and has not as yet revived. In exports but little has been done. The demand for the productions of the Islands, for the California market, has been small, as the difference in price between the two places has not been sufficient to allow a margin to the shipper after paying duties.

The whaling fleet of last year is of nearly the same number as that of the preceding year; the success of the past season does not equal that of 1852. The Ochotack fleet was very successful, and the average catch was over 1,600 barrels, while those ships that cruised in the Arctic were unfortunate and averaged about 580 barrels. Freights during the past season ruled low, the rate having been 6 a 7c. in first-class merchant vessels.

Money has been plenty throughout the season, and exchange has been much called for. Whalers' Bills on U. S. have ruled from 3 a 7 per cent discount. At one period they reached 10 per cent, but did not hold at that long. They are now at par.

Yours, &c.,

B. F. SNOW.

IMPORTS.

The total amount of imports for 1853 has exceeded those of 1852 by \$522,082 64. From the United States, they amounted to \$954,919 93, which is more than three-fourths of the whole amount imported. The following are the imports for the past four years:—

1850.	1851.	1852.	1853
\$1,035,058 70	\$1,823,821 68	\$759,868 54	\$1,281,951 18

Giving an average for the four years, of \$1,225,175 02. The amount of imports for 1853 exceeds the average of the past four years by \$56,776 16.

FOREIGN EXPORTS—COMPARISON FOR FOUR YEARS.

1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
\$46,529 72	\$381,402 55	\$381,143 51	\$191,397 66

DOMESTIC EXPORTS.

1850.....	\$596,522 63	1852.....	\$638,395 20
1851.....	309,823 94	1853.....	275,374 17

REVENUE.

1850....	\$121,506 73	1852.....	\$113,091 93
1851.....	160,602 19	1853.....	155,640 17

VESSELS.—THE FOLLOWING ARE THE ARRIVALS:—

	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
Merchant.....	469	446	235	194
Whale-ships.....	287	135	519	535

Of the above whale-ships, some have touched at two or more ports, consequently the number of different vessels are not so great as the figures seem to show. From the above statistics, says the *Polynesian*, the great lack of a domestic export, to anything like the amount of our imports, is glaringly conspicuous, and will call for some renewed effort, we trust, to create or increase it. An export is now the great desideratum.

VALUE OF GOODS IMPORTED INTO THE SANDWICH ISLANDS DURING THE YEAR 1853.

Total dutiable	\$1,160,355 13	Entered in bond.....	\$16,284 35
Free of duty.....	79,402 80	Withdrawn for conspction.	25,908 90

Total..... \$1,281,951 18

Of the dutiable goods, \$587,770 29 were from the Atlantic side of the United States, and \$367,149 64 from the Pacific side—in all, \$954,919 93 from the United States. The country from which the next largest amount of goods was imported is China, from which the imports only amounted to \$42,056 86; from Chile, \$38,099 30; Great Britain, \$20,471 74; Bremen, \$12,225 91; Philippine Islands, \$12,038 57; France, but \$30.

RECEIPTS FROM CUSTOMS IN 1853.

Total duties received at Honolulu, \$146,964 52; at Lahaina, 8,138 27; all other ports, 537 38—total in the kingdom, 155,640 17.

Of the total receipts, \$58,114 86 were for duties on goods; 70,209 68 on spirits; and 8,261 75 for harbor dues.

EXPORTS OF DOMESTIC PRODUCE IN 1853.

Total value, \$281,599 17. The principal exports consisted of—

Sugar.....	lbs.	634,955	Goat skins.....	5,600
Sirup.....	galls.	18,244	Hides.....	1,741
Molasses.....		58,448	Cocoa-nuts.....	2,000
Coffee.....	lbs.	50,506	Tallow.....	lbs. 16,452
Salt.....	bbls.	3,509	Wool.....	10,824
Irish potatoes.....		15,464	Melons.....	2,500
Sweet potatoes.....		8,979	Fresh beef.....	lbs. 38,000
Hogs.....		3,724	Salt beef.....	13,260
Sheep.....		738		

Of this total of \$281,599 17, but \$154,674 17 was really exported, the remainder \$126,925 having been furnished as supplies to the 154 merchant vessels and 246 whalers that stopped at the Island.

OIL AND BONE TRANSHIPPED FREE OF DUTY IN 1853.

SPRING SEASON.

	Sperm oil. Gallons.	Whale oil. Gallons.	Whalebone. Pounds.
To United States	132,251	1,897,116	435,846
To Havre	476	37,038	22,000

FALL SEASON.

To United States	42,669	1,853,194	1,520,559
To Cowes, Eng.....			21,040
To Bremen.....			14,819
To Havre			6,000
Total	175,396	3,787,348	2,020,264

ARRIVAL OF MERCHANT VESSELS IN 1853—THEIR NATIONALITY.

The total number of merchant vessels that visited the Islands in 1853 was 211, of whom—

Arrived at Honolulu.....	154	Arrived at Waimea	8
At Lahaina.....	29	At Kealahou.....	9
At Kawaihae.....	10	At Hilo.....	1

Of these vessels, 137 were American, with a total tonnage of 45,234; 17 Hawaiian, tonnage, 2,072; 32 British, tonnage, 6,185; 5 Danish, tonnage, 866; 5 French, tonnage, 1,034; 3 Russian, tonnage, 1,223.

ARRIVAL OF WHALERS AND THEIR NATIONALITY.

During the same year arrived 535 whalers, viz. :—

At Honolulu.....	246	At Kealahou.....	12
At Lahaina.....	177	At Kawaihae.....	20
At Hilo.....	66	At Waimea	13

Of the total, 500 were American, 19 French, 12 Bremen, and 4 Russian.

COASTERS.

The total number of vessels engaged in coasting among the Islands is 32, with a tonnage of 1,338.

PRICE OF WHEAT IN ENGLAND FOR TWO HUNDRED AND FIFTY YEARS.

TO FREEMAN HUNT, *Editor of the Merchants' Magazine* :—

DEAR SIR :—I take the liberty of sending you the inclosed statement, compiled from Adam Smith's "Wealth of Nations." The calculations have been carefully made, and will doubtless be found correct, with the exception that fractions of cents have been omitted.

Yours, &c.,

JOHN GRAME, Jr.

A TABLE SHOWING THE AVERAGE PRICE OF WHEAT, EACH YEAR, IN ENGLAND, RANGING FROM 1202 TO 1764, INCLUSIVE, IN MONEY OF THE PRESENT TIMES.

Year.	Per bush.	Year.	Per bush.	Year.	Per bush.
1202 KING JOHN...	\$ 86	1349.....	\$ 12	1457.....	\$ 36
1205.....	1 02	1359.....	1 49	1459.....	24
1223 HENRY II....	86	1361.....	10	1460.....	38
1237.....	24	1363.....	83	1463 EDWARD IV..	07
1243.....	14	1369.....	1 18	1464.....	24
1244.....	14	1379 RICHARD II..	22	1486 HENRY VII..	88
1246.....	1 14	1387.....	9	1491.....	54
1247.....	95	1390.....	78	1494.....	14
1257.....	1 71	1401 HENRY IV....	83	1496.....	12
1258.....	1 21	1407.....	21	1497.....	74
1270.....	8 00	1416 HENRY IV....	76	1499.....	14
1286 EDWARD I....	66	1423 HENRY VI....	38	1504.....	19
1287.....	24	1425.....	19	1521 HENRY VIII..	71
1288.....	21	1434.....	1 26	1551 EDWARD VI..	5
1299.....	72	1435.....	24	1553.....	19
1290.....	1 14	1439.....	1 11	1554 MARY.....	19
1294.....	1 14	1440.....	1 14	1555.....	19
1302.....	29	1444.....	19	1556.....	19
1309 EDWARD II..	51	1445.....	21	1557.....	41
1315.....	1 43	1447.....	38	1558.....	19
1316.....	2 18	1448.....	31	1559 ELIZABETH...	19
1317.....	2 82	1449.....	24	1560.....	19
1336 EDWARD III..	14	1451.....	38	1561.....	19
1338.....	24	1453.....	25	1562.....	19
1339.....	64	1455.....	5	1574.....	95

Year.	Per bush.	Year.	Per bush.	Year.	Per bush.
1587.....	\$1 52	1654.....	\$ 62	1710.....	\$1 86
1594.....	1 33	1655.....	1 57	1711.....	1 29
1595.....	1 26	1656.....	1 02	1713.....	1 10
1596.....	1 90	1657.....	1 11	1713.....	1 21
1597.....	2 19	1658.....	1 53	1714.....	1 19
1598.....	1 35	1659.....	1 57	1715 GEORGE I....	1 02
1599.....	93	1660.....	1 35	1716.....	1 14
1600.....	89	1661 CHARLES II..	1 67	1717.....	1 08
1601.....	84	1662.....	1 76	1718.....	93
1602.....	69	1663.....	1 36	1719.....	83
1603.....	83	1664.....	96	1720.....	88
1604 JAMES I.....	71	1665.....	1 17	1721.....	89
1605.....	84	1666.....	86	1722.....	86
1606.....	78	1667.....	86	1723.....	82
1607.....	87	1668.....	95	1724.....	88
1608.....	1 35	1669.....	1 05	1725.....	1 15
1609.....	1 19	1670.....	99	1726.....	1 10
1610.....	85	1671.....	1 00	1727.....	1 00
1611.....	92	1672.....	98	1728 GEORGE II....	1 30
1612.....	1 01	1673.....	1 11	1729.....	1 11
1613.....	1 16	1674.....	1 63	1730.....	87
1614.....	99	1675.....	1 54	1731.....	78
1615.....	92	1676.....	90	1732.....	63
1616.....	95	1677.....	1 00	1733.....	66
1617.....	1 15	1678.....	1 41	1734.....	92
1618.....	1 11	1679.....	1 43	1735.....	1 02
1619.....	84	1680.....	1 07	1736.....	95
1620.....	72	1681.....	1 11	1737.....	90
1621.....	72	1682.....	1 05	1738.....	85
1622.....	1 39	1683.....	95	1739.....	92
1623.....	1 24	1684.....	1 05	1740.....	1 20
1624.....	1 14	1685.....	1 11	1741.....	1 11
1625.....	1 24	1686 JAMES II....	81	1742.....	81
1626 CHARLES I....	1 18	1687.....	60	1743.....	58
1627.....	86	1688.....	1 10	1744.....	58
1628.....	66	1689.....	71	1745.....	65
1629.....	1 00	1690 WM. & MARY.	82	1746.....	93
1630.....	1 32	1691.....	81	1747.....	82
1631.....	1 62	1692.....	1 11	1748.....	88
1633.....	1 38	1693.....	1 61	1749.....	68
1634.....	1 33	1694.....	1 52	1750.....	77
1635.....	1 33	1695.....	1 26	1751.....	93
1636.....	1 35	1696.....	1 69	1752.....	99
1637.....	1 26	1697.....	1 43	1753.....	1 06
1638.....	1 36	1698.....	1 62	1754.....	83
1639.....	1 06	1699.....	1 52	1755.....	80
1640.....	1 06	1700.....	95	1756.....	1 07
1641.....	1 14	1791.....	89	1757.....	1 43
1646.....	1 14	1702.....	70	1758.....	1 19
1647.....	1 75	1703 ANNE.....	86	1759.....	94
1648.....	2 02	1704.....	1 11	1760.....	87
1649.....	1 90	1705.....	71	1761 GEORGE III....	73
1650 COM'NWEALTH.	1 82	1706.....	62	1762.....	93
1651.....	1 74	1707.....	68	1763.....	96
1652.....	1 18	1708.....	99	1764.....	1 11
1653.....	85	1709.....	1 87		

The average price of wheat per bushel for the two hundred and fifty years above given, (during a period of five hundred and sixty-two years,) is 86 cents.

Highest price in (1270)..... \$8 00 | Lowest price (in 1551)..... \$0 03
Mean..... \$7 95.

For 36 years, at different periods, the price ranged from 80 to 90 cents per bushel; for 28 years, 90 cents to \$1 00; for 16 years, \$1 00 to \$1 10; and for 32 years from \$1 10 to \$1 20; showing that for 112 years out of 250 the price of wheat ranged from 80 cents to \$1 20 per bushel. The annexed statement exhibits the number of years during which the different prices ruled:—

Prices.	Years.	Prices.	Years.	Prices.	Years.
\$0 05 a \$0 15.....	12	\$0 90 a \$1 00.....	28	\$1 60 a \$1 70.....	6
0 15 a 0 25.....	23	1 00 a 1 10.....	16	1 70 a 1 80.....	4
0 25 a 0 35.....	3	1 10 a 1 20.....	32	1 80 a 1 90.....	4
0 35 a 0 50.....	6	1 20 a 1 30.....	10	1 90 a 2 00.....	2
0 50 a 0 60.....	4	1 30 a 1 40.....	13	2 00 a 2 50.....	3
0 60 a 0 70.....	11	1 40 a 1 50.....	6	2 50 a 3 00.....	1
0 70 a 0 80.....	15	1 50 a 1 60.....	7	3 00	1
0 80 a 0 90.....	36				

TRADE BETWEEN GREAT BRITAIN AND RUSSIA AND TURKEY.

The London *Bankers' Circular*, an excellent authority, furnishes the following statement of the trade of the United Kingdom with Russia and Turkey. It is generally supposed that the Turkish empire is unworthy of consideration, and that it must ultimately fall to pieces from its own inherent weakness; but such an idea is very erroneous, as will be seen from the following extracts:—

It is estimated that our importations of foreign grain last year amounted to about 12,000,000*l.*, of this quantity imported, about one-third is in the hands of the Greek merchants, who have now almost the entire of this branch of trade in the Mediterranean. The official returns show that our export trade to Turkey has risen from 888,654*l.* in 1831, to 3,113,679*l.* in 1850, showing an increase of 250 per cent. The following is the official account of the declared value of exports to Turkey from 1840 to 1850, inclusive:—

1840.....	£1,361,589	1844.....	£2,869,232	1848.....	£3,116,365
1841.....	1,647,354	1845.....	2,842,909	1849.....	2,930,612
1842.....	1,847,839	1846.....	2,211,897	1850.....	3,113,679
1843.....	2,301,856	1847.....	2,992,281		

From this statement it appears that the value of our exports to Turkey more than doubled itself in eleven years.

Our export trade to Russia in 1831 amounted to 1,191,565*l.*, and for the eleven years ended 1850, the declared value was as follows:—

1840.....	£1,602,742	1844.....	£2,128,926	1848.....	£1,925,226
1841.....	1,607,175	1845.....	2,153,491	1849.....	1,566,175
1842.....	1,885,953	1846.....	1,725,148	1850.....	1,454,771
1843.....	1,695,519	1847.....	1,844,543		

The value of our export trade to Russia, has, therefore, declined to an amount below what it was in 1832, for in 1851 it was only 1,289,704*l.* We do not however arrive at the real value of the export trade from this country to Russia and Turkey by simply looking to the total amounts—we must look more narrowly into the articles exported to arrive at this. It will be seen that since we have opened our ports for the free importation of foreign grain, that our trade with Russia has gradually declined; but from the same period that of Turkey has gradually increased, and while the former has diminished nearly fifty per cent, the latter has risen to the same extent since 1845.

We shall first direct attention to the export of cotton manufactures to the two countries, for these constitute the principal branch of our commercial intercourse with Russia and Turkey. In 1831 the total quantity of cotton manufactures exported to Russia and entered by the yard, was 1,360,634, and the declared value, 68,412*l.* In the same year we exported in cotton twist and yarn 13,959,666 lbs., the declared value being 790,371*l.* So that our exports of cotton twist at that time constituted the more important branch of the two; and it gradually increased up to the year 1837, when the quantity of cotton twist alone amounted to 24,108,593 lbs., at a value

of 1,612,956*l*. Since that period it has never reached to a similar amount; and in 1850 we only exported 4,370,576 lbs., at a value of 245,825*l*. These are very significant facts in connection with our Commerce with Russia, and too important to be overlooked in our commercial transactions with that country.

We shall now direct attention to the export of cotton manufactures to the two countries. In 1831 the quantity of cotton goods exported to Russia by the yard amounted to 1,960,634 yards, at a value of 68,412*l*. In 1835 the quantity exported was 2,883,059 yards, at a value of 109,298*l*. In no subsequent year was this quantity ever reached, the year 1849 being the period when the nearest approach was made to it, the quantity being then 2,137,108 yards. From that period to 1851 the exports of cotton goods to Russia, excepting the year 1849, have generally declined, as may be seen by the following statement:—

	Exp't cotton goods to Russia. Yards.	Declared value. £.		Exp't cotton goods to Russia. Yards.	Declared value. £.
1840.....	2,114,029	59,292	1846.....	1,219,765	30,893
1841.....	1,241,665	37,625	1847.....	1,541,112	35,274
1842.....	1,524,542	36,345	1848.....	1,605,297	34,509
1843.....	1,315,811	27,584	1849.....	2,137,108	44,468
1844.....	1,264,553	31,468	1850.....	1,300,603	41,283
1845.....	1,320,775	30,184	1851.....	1,568,934	30,257

We have seen then that Russia has not only reduced her importations of cotton twist from England from 24 million pounds per annum to 3½ millions, but her imports of cotton manufactures from 2 to 1½ million yards. Now this cannot arise from any hostility to Russia in our tariffs, because we admit almost duty free nearly all the raw produce she is accustomed to export to this country. It is because Russia is increasing her own manufactures that she ceases to purchase of England, and we require no better proof than the decrease shown above. It is also clear that the opening of our ports to the free importation of grain has created no reciprocal trade between England and Russia.

If we examine the progress of our export trade to Turkey, we shall find that it presents a totally different aspect. We estimate, and a very natural way it is, the value of our Commerce with foreign nations by what is exchanged between the two countries; and we can scarcely find a better example than that which Turkey affords. Having shown the increase in the total value exported to that country, we may next examine it with regard to the manufactures of cotton. In 1831 we exported 24,565,530 yards; in 1836 it increased to 48,079,103 yards; in 1843 it amounted to 87,779,175 yards; and in 1848 to 156,757,178 yards. Such is the extraordinary progress of the export of cotton goods from this country to Turkey, that the total value of cotton goods amounted to no less than 2,458,538*l*. in 1850—hence Turkey holds a most important commercial position in the trade and Commerce of the United Kingdom.

In addition to the exports of cotton manufactures by the yard, a very large increase is shown in the exports of twist and yarn. The quantity exported in 1831 only amounted to 1,735,760 lbs., and in 1848, 13,019,355 lbs.

The trade of Turkey has made great advances since 1842, when the Turkish government allowed corn to be exported. But it was the free importation of corn into England that has given the strongest impetus to the cultivation of grain in Moldavia and Wallachia, although the system of husbandry is very inferior to what it might be. We are not much indebted to Turkey for our supplies of wheat; but we receive from thence immense quantities of Indian corn, and nearly the whole of this branch of trade is in the hands of Greek merchants. The importance of the shipping trade at Galatz and Ibrailia is sufficient to point out the value of our Commerce with Turkey. Between 1842 and 1850, the exports of Indian corn from the port of Galatz amounted to upwards of 1,400,000 quarters, being an increase of 100 per cent. The exportations of wheat from the same port were on a more limited scale; but the exports of grain for the past seven years from Ibrailia have shown a very large increase also. In fact, if we are to carry on a reciprocal trade with foreign corn-producing countries, there is not one in Europe holds out so many inducements as the increasing trade of Turkey.

The Greek merchants who reside in this country, and who are now considerable in their numbers, are reckoned amongst the most honorable of men; and under an improved system of agriculture, the Turkish provinces could very materially increase the cereal productions of the soil.

Our trade with the Danubian provinces will probably become much more extensive even than it now is, if no political disturbances should occur to check its advancement. In fact, it may be said that England enjoys the principal part of the Commerce with the Danube; for our exports of merchandise of different kinds into Galatz, in 1850, amounted to about 435,000*l.*; and into Ibrailia, during the same year, to about 463,000*l.* Of 391 ships that departed from Galatz, in 1850, no less than 133 were destined with cargoes for England, and 162 to Constantinople, leaving only 96 to all other ports. Of this number of ships, 117 were Greek, 77 Turkish, and 50 English.

Of 505 vessels, which cleared with cargoes from Ibrailia in 1850, there were destined for Constantinople 285, and 120 for England, leaving 106 to all other countries. Of this number, 202 were Greek, 100 Turkish and 56 English vessels.

THE TOBACCO TRADE.

The crop of tobacco raised in the United States, according to the *Baltimore American*, is considered by many as comprising the great bulk of the consumption of Europe, and few are aware of the fact that Hungary, with all its political embarrassments and its oppressive policy towards the agriculturist, produces nearly double the quantity of that sent from the United States to Germany and Holland. An intelligent friend has received the following statement of the imports of tobacco into those countries in the year 1853, which we translate for the benefit of the American reader:—

IMPORTS OF TOBACCO INTO HOLLAND AND GERMANY IN 1853, FROM THE UNITED STATES.

	Hbds.	Weight in pounds.	Value.
Bremen.....	34,115	31,022,000	\$3,368,000
Hamburg	1,037	1,140,000	111,000
Holland.....	20,638	15,530,000	1,881,000
Total.....	55,790	47,692,000	\$5,260,000

FROM THE WEST INDIES.

	Packages.	Weight in pounds.	Value.
Bremen.....	142,638	19,214,000	\$3,760,000
Hamburgh	115,950	14,271,000	2,770,000
Holland	43,352	6,315,000	1,263,000
Total.	301,940	39,800,000	\$7,793,000

From this statement it would appear that whilst the total value of tobacco received from the West Indies is \$7,793,000, the value of that received from the United States is only \$5,260,000, being less in value by two millions and a half. It must be observed, however, that there is a material difference in the price of the two commodities—the average value of that from the United States being about eleven cents per pound, whilst that from the West Indies averages over twenty cents.

The following table contains in brief the total production of Northern Europe:—

	Pounds.	Value.
Pfaltz	35,000,000	\$3,100,000
Other German States.....	35,000,000	3,100,000
Hungary	90,000,000	7,200,000
European.....	160,000,000	\$13,400,000
From West Indies	39,800,000	7,793,000
West Indian and European.....	199,800,000	21,193,000
Add import from the United States.....	47,692,000	5,260,000
Total	247,492,000	\$26,453,000

From this statement it will be seen that Germany and Hungary alone raise 160,000,000 of pounds, against 48,000,000 received from the United States into those countries. The average value, however, is less than that of the United States, being about 8½ cents per lb. It is generally supposed that the crop raised in that part of Germany known as Pfaltz is about equal to the average crop of Maryland, say 39,000 hbds., and that the other German States produce about as much more. The produce of Hungary is nearly three times that of Maryland.

An observant reader, says the *American*, will readily see from the above statement how small a proportion the whole receipts from the United States bear to the total amount of tobacco consumed in Northern Europe alone—being only about one-fifth of the total amount, or in round numbers less than 50,000,000 lbs. out of 250,000,000. He will also see that while an advance in price in Europe may materially affect the value of the article in this country, an advance here from a partial failure of crops, or other causes, can produce but little effect in Europe. A slight diminution in the consumption in those countries must soon countervail any deficiency in the produce of the United States.

NAVIGATION AT ALBANY.

The Albany Harbor Master's Report for the season of 1853, shows the amount of moneys received by him, and the amount of tonnage that arrived at that port, as follows:—

Schooners.....	322	27,934 tons, 1½ c. per ton	\$419 01
Propellers.....	16	2,830 “ “ “	42 45
Steamboats.....	89	15,502 “ “ “	233 88
Barges.....	201	26,245 “ “ “	393 64
Scows.....	12	687 “ “ “	10 30
Sloops.....	258	14,682 “ “ “	220 23
Total tonnage.....		87,968	Total fees..... \$1,319 51

BRITISH MERCANTILE MARINE.

Parliamentary returns just made public, give the following figures relative to the mercantile marine of Britain. For convenience of reference, we condense the reports into a tabular shape:—

1st, HOME TRADE SHIPPING.

	British sailing ships in Channel Islands but not colonies.	Tons.	Steamers.	Tons.	Total Men.
1849.....	9,298	665,726	312	54,089	44,650
1853.....	8,477	689,342	374	85,471	42,740

2d, PARTLY HOME TRADE, PARTLY FOREIGN-GOING.

1849.....	1,897	281,951	20	5,539	12,977
1853.....	970	156,800	28	7,250	7,694

3d, SOLELY FOREIGN-GOING SHIPS.

1849.....	6,612	2,040,344	82	48,698	94,984
1853.....	8,110	2,665,685	237	125,539	122,091

TOTAL OF BRITISH SHIPPING.

1849.....	18,221	3,096,342	(steam and sail)	152,611
1853.....	18,206	3,730,087	(steam and sail)	172,525

River steamers not included in the above.

THE COAL TRADE OF ENGLAND AND THE WORLD.

To such an extent has the British coal industry been developed, that at the present time not less than 37,000,000 tons are annually raised, the value of which at the pit's mouth is little less than £10,000,000; at the places of consumption, including expenses of transport and other charges, probably not less than £20,000,000. The capital employed in the trade exceeds £10,000,000. About 400 iron furnaces of Great Britain consume annually 10,000,000 tons of coal and 7,000,000 tons of ironstone, in order to produce 2,500,000 tons of pig-iron, of the value of upwards of £3,000,000. Add to this that about 120,000 persons are constantly employed in extracting the coal from the mines, and that in some of the northern counties there are more persons at work under the ground than upon its surface, and some approximate idea will be formed of the importance and extent of this branch of our industry. The extent of the coal

area in the British Islands is 12,000 square miles, and the annual produce 87,000,000 tons; of Belgium 360 miles, annual produce 5,000,000 tons; of France 2,000 miles, annual produce 4,150,000 tons; of the United States 113,000 miles, annual produce 5,000,000 tons; of Prussia 2,200 miles, annual produce 3,500,000 tons; of Spain 4,000 miles, annual produce 550,000 tons; of British North America 180,000 miles, annual produce not known. Taking the British Islands and dividing them into districts, we find the supposed workable area as follows, in acres:—

Northumberland and Durham	500,000	Somersetshire & Gloucesters'e.	167,500
Cumberland, Westmoreland & West Riding	95,500	South Wales.....	600,000
Lancashire, Flintshire, & North Staffordshire	550,000	Scottish coal-fields.....	1,045,000
Shropshire & Worcestershire.	79,950	Ulster.....	500,000
South Staffordshire.....	65,000	Connaught.....	200,000
Warwickshire & Leicestersh'e.	80,000	Leinster.....	150,000
		Munster.....	1,000,000

Our exports, which in 1840 amounted 1,606,000 tons, valued at £576,000, had increased in 1850 to 3,531,000 tons, of the value of £1,284,000. In 1841 our exports to—

France were.....tons.	451,300	Prussia.....tons.	116,296
Holland.....	178,378	Russia	77,152

In 1850 they were to—

France.....tons.	612,545	Prussia.....tons.	186,520
Holland.....	159,958	Russia.....	235,188

COMMERCE OF CLEVELAND, OHIO.

According to the annual statement published in the *Herald*, the number of vessels enrolled in the Cleveland District is 143, and the aggregate tonnage 25,842 tons. The tonnage is a little below that enrolled at Oswego. The *Herald's* tables showing the value of imports and exports for 1853, aggregate as follows:—

Total amount of imports coastwise.....	\$54,801,174
“ “ exports coastwise.....	32,320,521
“ “ foreign imports.....	170,608
“ “ foreign exports.....	397,209

Total exports and imports by Lake.....	86,969,512
Add estimated value of exports and imports by railroad	15,000,000

Total trade..... • 101,969,512

INSPECTION OF LEATHER IN PHILADELPHIA.

The law requiring the inspection of leather at the Port of Philadelphia, went into effect in May, 1843. The inspections since have been as follows:—

1853.....sides.	469,177	1848.....sides.	301,261
1852.....	427,548	1847.....	363,531
1851.....	432,721	1846.....	241,183
1850.....	371,987	1845.....	231,501
1849.....	319,156	1844.....	233,377

INDIA HEMP A RIVAL TO RUSSIAN.

The Honorable East India Company have recently forwarded to the Manchester Commercial Association samples of fibrous grasses, said to grow in Assam, and other districts of India. One of these samples is identical with the fiber known as China grass, and has been valued by the Messrs. Marshall of Leeds, at from £48 to £50 per ton. Another of the samples seems calculated to rival Russian hemp, as in a recent experiment the former bore a strain of 343 lbs., while the latter could only sustain 160 lbs.

JOURNAL OF INSURANCE.

JOINT STOCK AND MUTUAL FIRE INSURANCE COMPANIES OF NEW YORK.

The following statement, showing the capital, assets, liabilities, income, and expenditures of each class of fire insurance companies in the State of New York, from which returns have been received for the year ending December 31st, 1853, has been compiled from the report (not yet printed) of the Controller, recently made to the Legislature of the State of New York. It embraces the aggregate of sixty-five joint-stock and sixty-two mutual companies:—

SIXTY-FIVE JOINT-STOCK COMPANIES.

Aggregate capital (cash) \$13,300,000 00

ASSETS.

Value of real estate	\$376,991 77
Premiums unpaid on policies issued	135,386 06
Cash in hands of agents	116,885 53
Cash on hand	116,927 62
Cash in banks	843,706 27
Amount loaned on real estate (first lien)	12,848,811 71
Amount due on judgments	19,685 25
Amount of stocks owned	325,703 60
Stocks held as collateral for loans	\$936,978
Amount loaned thereon	880,142 90
Amount of all other loans	131,464 62
Amount of interest due	266,294 63

Aggregate amount of capital and surplus \$16,066,949 15

LIABILITIES.

Losses due and unpaid	\$120,129 26
Losses claimed and resisted	101,625 51
Losses incurred during the year	\$1,173,162 16
Less amount paid	450,027 66
	723,134 50
Losses reported, on which no action has been taken	186,112 83
Dividends declared and unpaid	17,182 29
Amount borrowed	28,000 00
Amount of all other claims	23,290 99

Total amount of liabilities \$1,204,475 28

INCOME.

Cash received for premiums	\$3,800,858 77
Notes received for premiums	98,024 06
Interest received for premiums	780,558 97
Amount received from other sources	44,657 00

Total amount of income \$4,724,098 80

EXPENDITURES.

Losses paid during the year	\$1,732,072 14
Losses which accrued prior to last statement	\$161,395 87
And which were estimated therein at	60,385 74
Losses which accrued during the year	1,284,677 12
Dividends during the year	1,502,273 99
Salaries, commissioners, and fees paid	710,099 84
Amount paid for taxes	133,907 44
Amount of all other payments	96,401 82

Total amount of expenditures \$4,179,755 23

SIXTY-TWO MUTUAL COMPANIES.

Aggregate capital..... \$11,621,914 90

ASSETS.

Value of real estate	\$8,678 58
Premiums unpaid on policies issued.....	2,490 85
Cash in hands of agents	483,019 72
Cash on hand.....	118,221 77
Cash in banks	165,042 43
Loaned on real estate (first lien).....	356,760 45
Amount due on judgments.....	16,797 16
Amount of Stocks owned.....	4,000 00
Stocks held as collateral on loans	\$11,000 00
Amount loaned thereon	8,300 00
Amount of all other loans	353,052 38
Assessments on stocks paid	\$2,997 40
Assessments on stocks unpaid.....	1,474 38
Assessment on premium notes paid	\$451,374 07
Assessment on premium notes unpaid	370,476 13
Amount of interest due	4,545 52
Amount of premium notes on which policies issued.....	10,347,028 24

Total \$12,239,887 51

LIABILITIES.

Losses due and unpaid	\$139,399 16
Losses claimed and resisted	389,997 63
Losses incurred during the year.....	\$678,901 75
Less amount paid.....	487,315 22
	191,586 53
Losses reported, on which no action has been taken.....	89,278 71
Dividends declared and unpaid.....	92 92
Amount of money borrowed	110,129 81
Amount of all other claims	68,438 99

Total amount of Liabilities \$988,923 75

INCOME.

Premiums received in cash	\$1,623,937 23
Notes received for premiums.....	756,338 05
Amount of interest received for premiums	30,940 64
Amount received from all other sources.....	307,187 28

Aggregate income..... \$2,718,403 30

EXPENDITURES.

Losses paid during the year.....	\$1,104,942 75
Of which there accrued prior to the last statement.	\$315,659 89
And now estimated therein at.....	253,736 44
Amount which accrued subsequent to last statement	667,048 41
Dividends paid during the year.....	32,127 94
Salaries, commissions, and fees paid.....	429,963 73
Amount paid for taxes.....	6,694 92
Amount of all other payments	85,732 25

Total amount of expenditures..... \$1,659,461 64

FIRE INSURANCE.

In the court of Common Pleas, (1854.) before Judge INGRAHAM. James W. Savage, assignee of Goodday, vs. The Farmers' Insurance Company of Oneida County.

This was an action to recover damages for loss sustained by fire. The plaintiff sues as assignee for the benefit of the creditors of the insured. The premises which con-

tained the property insured were in Fulton-street, and the fire occurred in Dec., 1852. The goods consisted, for the most part, of ready-made clothing, and materials for making clothes. The defence set up was, first, that the premises were purposely set fire to, and that Goodday was guilty of fraud in altering the inventory of goods after the fire occurred, so as to make the amount of goods burned appear much greater than it really was, and also that after the fire some of the goods saved were removed, which decreased the amount that should be credited to the Insurance Company. In relation to the alleged alterations in the invoices, a clerk of Goodday, who was examined for the plaintiff, admitted, on his cross-examination, that he made several alterations in the inventory, which greatly increased the amount of goods alleged to have been burned, and that he made those alterations by direction of Goodday. In reply to this, Goodday positively denied it.

The court charged the jury. As to the burning of the house, there was no testimony to warrant its being imputed to Goodday. The circumstances proved in relation to it were of too slight a character to warrant such a conclusion. But the jury, if they thought proper, had a right to differ from the court on this point. The other alleged ground for vitiating the policy, on account of fraud, was divided into two branches. One of them was the alterations in the invoices. The proof of that rested on the evidence of the clerk, who was called as a witness for the plaintiff; and if his testimony was true, there could be no doubt that the defence must be sustained. This witness stood in a peculiar position, and his evidence seemed to be drawn from him unwillingly. He was, however, positively contradicted by Goodday. It was for the jury to say, whether that witness was worthy of credit; and if he was, the court could not see how there could be any escape from a verdict for the defendants. As to the alleged removal of goods which escaped the fire before the sale of them, if these removals were made for the purpose of lessening the stock after the fire, it was a fraud. If the jury believed that either these charges of fraud were substantiated, they must find for the defendants; and if not, the plaintiff was entitled to recover the proportionate amount of his policy with defendants.

Verdict for defendants.

Goodday had the property so destroyed insured for various amounts with four insurance companies.

EXTRAORDINARY FRAUD IN LIFE INSURANCE.

The following singular case of a fraud committed in Berlin, on two insurances in London and Copenhagen, discovered after a concealment of four years, we find related in a foreign paper:—

An extraordinary case of fraud has just been discovered here, the details of which are almost incredible; but as the police have acted on certain information, and the parties have been arrested, there is no doubt of their truth. On the evening of the 28th of September, the priest of the Catholic congregation and the sexton of the burial-ground belonging to the Catholic church, were surprised by an intimation from the criminal police that one of the graves was to be opened and the coffin officially examined, suspicions having arisen as to its contents. At the appointed hour on the 29th, a judge of the city court, M. Schlottke, M. Meier, the staatsanwalt, or public prosecutor, M. Steiber, the polizei-rath, and a body of constables, arrived at the ground, outside the Oranfenberger gate. The clergyman and sexton were also in attendance.

After some searching the grave was found in which, on the 24th of November, 1849, a certain Franz Thomatscheck, a master tailor, was buried. The coffin was found in good preservation. According to the information the police had received, it was stated it contained no body, and when opened, the supposition was fully confirmed. Instead of a corpse, an old board, wisp of half rotten straw, and some stones, were all that was visible. Yet the sexton remembered that the coffin had been interred with all religious ceremony, amid a circle of weeping friends and relations of the supposed defunct. The registry of the burial had been regularly made, and no one connected with the church had any doubt that a real interment had taken place.

Before the police searched the ground, they had arrested several persons in the city—among them the medical man who had attended the supposed deceased in his last illness, and had written the certificate of his death, on the faith of which the funeral rites had been performed.

The ground of the deception was an extensive fraud on two life insurance offices—one in London, the other in Copenhagen—two distant establishments having been chosen to render the cheat more practicable. The parties to it were Anton Thomatchek, also a tailor, who, in 1848, resided in a house on the Linden, and his brother Franz, who in that year had returned from Copenhagen, and lived with him. They were both in needy circumstances, and to procure money they formed the plan which was so successfully carried out, and so long concealed. Anton insured the life of Franz in a London office for 9,000 thalers, and in another at Copenhagen, for 1,000 more.

Shortly afterwards, Franz was reported to be dangerously ill, was attended by a surgeon, and duly died. The surgeon, for a bribe of 100 thalers, (or \$75,) drew up and signed the certificate of the death, on which the premiums were paid to the surviving brother. The coffin, prepared as described, was committed to the earth with all the ceremonies; and, impelled by a strange curiosity, Franz, who shortly before his death had left the house of mourning in disguise, watched his own burial at a distance, and heard the funeral service read over himself! Immediately afterwards he fled from Berlin, and fixed his residence in a small town in Bohemia, where, by the aid of the telegraph and the Austrian government, he has been arrested before he could receive information of the discovery of the fraud. Anton was paid the insurances, which he divided with his brother. When this part of the transaction was arranged, the disconsolate widow of the (in a double sense) departed man, also left Berlin, and joined him in his Bohemian retreat.

After nearly four years, the crime is discovered, and all the parties to it are in the hands of justice. The "dead alive" will have to stand at the bar, together with the doctor who killed him, and the process, it is anticipated, will be in the highest degree interesting.

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

EXTENSION OF THE WAREHOUSING SYSTEM OF THE UNITED STATES.

GENERAL REGULATIONS. NO. 20.

TO COLLECTORS AND OTHER OFFICERS OF THE CUSTOMS.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, March 30, 1854.

The annexed copy of an act of Congress, entitled "An act to extend the warehousing system by establishing private bonded warehouses, and for other purposes," approved the 28th instant, is herewith transmitted for the information and government of collectors and other officers of the customs.

There are several important provisions of this act which require a modification of the warehousing regulations of the 17th February, 1849. Those regulations, however, in other respects will continue in force until modified or revoked by further instructions. It will be perceived that by the provisions of the 4th section of this act, imported merchandise duly entered after its date for warehousing under bond may continue in warehouse without payment of duties thereupon for a period of three years from the date of original importation. It may be withdrawn at any time, within that period, either for consumption on due entry therefor, and payment of duties and charges, or for exportation without the payment of duties. When withdrawn for exportation, however, the storage and charges due on the merchandise so withdrawn must be paid.

When duties shall have been paid on merchandise entered for consumption, they cannot be refunded on the exportation of the merchandise without the limits of the United States; nor can any abatement of duties be granted, or allowance made, for or on account of any injury, damage, deterioration, loss, or leakage, sustained by merchandise while in deposit in any public or private bonded warehouse established or recognized by the act. In pursuance of the provisions of the same section, the bond given on the entry of the merchandise for warehousing will be according to the annexed form A.

The extension of the warehousing period to three years, it will be perceived, is made applicable to merchandise bonded before the passage of the act and still re-

maining in warehouse. Any goods, wares, and merchandise, therefore, which may be in warehouse under bond on the receipt of these instructions will be permitted to remain therein for the period of three years from the date of original importation, and may, at any time within that period, be withdrawn for consumption on payment of duties and charges, or for exportation on payment of such charges and storage as may be due thereon.

It must be distinctly understood, however, that when any bond given before the passage of this law for any merchandise still remaining in warehouse reaches maturity, the owner or importer, if he desires to avail himself of the warehousing period as now extended, must give a new and satisfactory bond according to form A, when the former bond will be canceled.

The particular attention of collectors and other officers of the customs is called to the very important provisions of the 5th and 6th sections of the act, which regulate the transportation of merchandise in bond.

The following routes for the transportation of merchandise in bond from one port of entry to another port of entry or delivery, have been authorized by the Secretary of the Treasury, to wit:—

From the ports of Boston, New York, Philadelphia, and Baltimore, to Pittsburg, Wheeling, Cincinnati, Louisville, St. Louis, Nashville, Natchez, Evansville, New Albany, Burlington, Vt., Sacket's Harbor, Rochester, Oswego, Lewiston, Buffalo, Ogdenburg, Plattsburg, Cape Vincent, Erie, Toledo, Sandusky, Cleveland, Detroit, Michilimackinac, Chicago, and Milwaukee, by canal, railroad, river, or lake, wholly or in part, as the party may select in his entry. Also, from a port or ports on the Atlantic to any other port on the Atlantic, Gulf of Mexico, or the Pacific, or vice versa, by such route and conveyance as the party in his entry may select. Also, from the port of New Orleans to any port of entry or delivery on the Mississippi and its tributaries, and by such conveyance and route as the party in his entry shall select. Also, from the ports of Charleston and Savannah to the ports of Knoxville, Nashville, and Memphis.

Whatever mode of transportation may be adopted, whether by land or water, or partly by land and partly by water, if the port to which the merchandise is to be transported in bond be not more than three hundred miles distant, by the route proposed, from the port at which it is entered for transportation, thirty days will be allowed, but if the distance be more than three hundred miles, sixty days will be allowed for the transportation and delivery of the merchandise at its port of destination. But six months will be allowed for the transportation of merchandise in bond between the Atlantic and Pacific ports of the United States around Cape Horn, and three months by other routes between those points. The period thus prescribed will be carefully inserted in each case in the transportation bond, which will be according to the annexed form B. Each entry for transportation of bonded merchandise must contain a designation of the route by which it is to be transported. Collectors of the customs will report weekly to the department all the entries for transportation of merchandise in bond which have been made at their respective ports during the week, as well as the entries made for warehousing during the week, of merchandise transported thither in bond from other ports, according to the annexed forms C and D.

On the entry for re-warehousing of the merchandise on arrival at its destined port under transportation bond, the bond taken will be according to form E; and the collector will immediately transmit the notice prescribed per form 17, in the regulations, of the 17th February, 1849, to the collector at the port of withdrawal, in order that the transportation bond may be duly canceled. When warehousing and transportation are combined in one entry, as prescribed in the 22d section of those regulations the bond taken will be according to the annexed form F.

Care must be taken promptly to forward to the collector of the port to which merchandise entered for transportation in bond is destined, the triplicate copy of the entry for withdrawal and transportation, as prescribed in the regulations of the 17th February, 1849, on which will be distinctly noted the time limited in the bond for the transportation and delivery of the merchandise; and should there be no delivery within the time thus prescribed and limited, the collector at the port to which the merchandise was entered for transportation, will promptly notify the collector at the port of withdrawal of the non-delivery, who will at once demand payment, or upon failure thereof pass over the transportation bond to the United States District Attorney for suit, and the proper proceedings will be taken to enforce the forfeitures prescribed in the 6th section of the annexed act.

JAMES GUTHRIE, Secretary of the Treasury.

**AN ACT TO EXTEND THE WAREHOUSING SYSTEM BY ESTABLISHING PRIVATE BONDED
WAREHOUSES, AND FOR OTHER PURPOSES.**

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That from and after the passage of this act, any goods, wares, or merchandise subject to duty, with the exception of perishable articles, also gunpowder, fire-crackers, and other explosive substances, which shall have been duly entered and bonded for warehousing, in conformity with existing laws, may be deposited at the option of the owner, importer, consignee or agent, at his expense and risk, in any public warehouse owned or leased by the United States, or in the private warehouse of the importer, the same being used exclusively for the storage of warehoused goods of his own importation or to his consignment, or in a private warehouse used by the owner, occupant, or lessee, as a general warehouse for the storage of warehoused goods, such place of storage to be designated on the warehouse entry at the time of entering such merchandise at the custom-house: provided, that such private warehouse shall be used solely for the purpose of storing warehoused goods, and shall have been previously approved by the Secretary of the Treasury, and have been placed in charge of a proper officer of the customs, who, together with the owner and proprietor of the warehouse, shall have the joint custody of all the merchandise stored in said warehouse, and all the labor on the goods so stored must be performed by the owner or proprietor of the warehouse under the supervision of the officer of the customs in charge of the same, at the expense of the aforesaid owner or proprietor: and provided further, that cellars and vaults of stores for the storage of wines and distilled spirits only, and yards for the storage of coal, mahogany, and other woods and lumber, may, at the discretion of the Secretary of the Treasury, be constituted bonded warehouses for the storage of such articles under the same regulations and conditions as required in the storage of other merchandise; the cellars or vaults aforesaid shall be exclusively appropriated to the storage of wines or distilled spirits, and shall have no opening or entrance except the one from the street, on which separate and different locks of the custom-house and owner or proprietor of the cellars or vaults shall be placed.

SEC. 2. *And be it further enacted,* That unclaimed goods, wares, or merchandise, required by existing laws to be taken possession of by collectors of the customs, may be stored in any public warehouse owned or leased by the United States, or in any private bonded warehouse authorized by this act, and all charges for storage, labor, and other expenses accruing on any such goods, wares, or merchandise, not to exceed in any case the regular rates for such objects at the port in question, must be paid before the delivery of the goods on due entry thereof by the claimant or owner; or if sold as unclaimed goods to realize the import duties, the aforesaid charges shall be paid by the collector out of the proceeds of the sale thereof before paying such proceeds into the Treasury as required by existing laws. And any collector of the customs is hereby authorized, under such directions and regulations as may be prescribed by the Secretary of the Treasury, to sell, upon due notice, at public auction, any unclaimed goods, wares, or merchandise deposited in public warehouse whenever the same may, from depreciation in value, damage, leakage, or other cause, in the opinion of such collector, be likely to prove insufficient on a sale thereof to pay the duties, storage, and other charges, if suffered to remain in public store for the period now allowed by law in the case of unclaimed goods.

SEC. 3. *And be it further enacted,* That before any of the stores or cellars aforesaid, owned or occupied by private individuals, shall be used as a warehouse for merchandise imported by other merchants or importers, the owner, occupant, or lessee thereof shall enter into a bond, in such sums and with such sureties as may be approved by the Secretary of the Treasury, exonerating and holding the United States and its officers harmless from or on account of any risk, loss, or expense of any kind or description, connected with or arising from the deposit or keeping of the merchandise in the warehouse aforesaid; and all imports deposited in any public or private warehouse authorized by this act, shall be at the sole and exclusive risk and expense of the owner or importer.

SEC. 4. *And be it further enacted,* That all goods, wares, and merchandise, which may be hereafter duly entered for warehousing under bond, and likewise all merchandise now remaining in warehouse under bond, may continue in warehouse, without payment of duties thereupon, for a period of three years from the date of original importation, and may be withdrawn for consumption on due entry and payment of

the duties and charges, or upon entry for exportation, without the payment of duties at any time within the period aforesaid; in the latter case, the goods to be subject only to the payment of such storage and charges as may be due thereon: provided, however, that where the duties shall have been paid upon any goods, wares, or merchandise entered for consumption, said duties shall not be refunded on exportation of any such goods, wares, or merchandise, without the limits of the United States: and provided, further, that there shall be no abatement of the duties or allowance made for any injury, damage, deterioration, loss, or leakage, sustained by any goods, wares, or merchandise, whilst deposited in any public or private bonded warehouse established or recognized by this act.

SEC. 5. *And be it further enacted*, That any goods, wares, or merchandise, duly entered for warehousing, may be withdrawn under bond, without payment of the duties, from a bonded warehouse in any collection district of the United States, and be transported to a bonded warehouse in any other collection district within the same, and re-warehoused thereat; and any such goods, wares, or merchandise, may be so transported to their destination wholly by land or wholly by water, or partly by land and partly by water, over such routes as the Secretary of the Treasury may prescribe, and may likewise be conveyed over any foreign territory, the government of which may have, or shall by treaty stipulations grant, a free right of way over such territory; and for the purpose of better guarding against frauds upon the revenue on foreign goods transported between the ports of the Atlantic and those of the Pacific overland through any foreign territory, the Secretary of the Treasury be, and is hereby authorized to appoint special sworn agents as inspectors of the customs, to reside in said foreign territory where such goods may be landed or embarked, with power to superintend the landing or shipping of all goods passing coastwise between the ports of the United States on the Pacific and Atlantic, and whose duty it shall be, under such regulations and instructions as the Secretary of the Treasury may prescribe, to guard against the perpetration of any frauds upon the revenue: provided, that the compensation paid to said inspectors shall not in the aggregate exceed five thousand dollars per annum.

SEC. 6. *And be it further enacted*, That the Secretary of the Treasury shall prescribe the form of the bond to be given for the transportation of goods, wares, and merchandise, from a port in one collection district to a port in another collection district in the United States, as provided in the preceding section; also the time for such delivery; and for a failure to transport and deliver, within the time limited, any such bonded goods, wares, and merchandise, to the collector at the designated port, an additional duty of one hundred per cent shall be levied and collected, which additional duty shall be secured by such bond, or said goods, wares, and merchandise may be seized and forfeited for such failure, and any steam or other vessel, or vehicle, transporting such bonded goods, wares, and merchandise, the master, owner, or conductor of which shall fail to deliver the same to the collector at the designated port, shall be liable to seizure and forfeiture.

SEC. 7. *And be it further enacted*, That all leases of stores now held by the United States for the purpose of storing warehoused or unclaimed goods, shall, on the shortest period of termination named in said leases, be cancelled, and no leases shall be entered into by the United States for any stores for the storage of warehoused or unclaimed goods at any port where there may exist any private bonded warehouses, after the first day of July, eighteen hundred and fifty-five: provided, that nothing herein contained shall be construed to prevent the leasing or hiring of such buildings or accommodations as may be required for the use of the United States appraisers for the due examination and appraisal of imported merchandise at the ports where such officers are provided by law, nor to prohibit the leasing or hiring by collectors of the customs, for short periods, with the approval of the Secretary of the Treasury, of such stores as may be required for custom-house purposes at any of the smaller revenue ports of the United States: provided, that no collector or other officer of the customs shall enter into any contract or agreement for the use of any building to be thereafter erected as a public store or warehouse, and no lease of any building to be so used shall be taken for a longer period than three years, nor shall rent be paid, in whole or in part, in any case, in advance.

SEC. 8. *And be it further enacted*, That the Secretary of the Treasury be, and he is hereby authorized, upon production of satisfactory proof to him of the actual injury or destruction, in whole or in part, of any goods, wares, or merchandise, by accidental fire, or other casualty, while the same remained in the custody of the officers of the customs in any public or private warehouse under bond, or in the appraisers' stores

undergoing appraisal, in pursuance of law or regulations of the Treasury Department, or while in transportation under bond from the port of entry to any other port in the United States, to abate or refund, as the case may be, out of any moneys in the Treasury not otherwise appropriated, the amount of impost duties paid or accruing thereupon; and likewise to cancel any warehouse bond or bonds, or enter satisfaction thereon, in whole or in part, as the case may be.

Sec. 9. *And be it further enacted*, That the Secretary of the Treasury be, and is hereby authorized, from time to time to establish such rules and regulations, not inconsistent with the laws of the United States, for the due execution of this act, as he may deem to be expedient and necessary; and all acts and parts of acts conflicting with this act are hereby repealed.

Approved, March 28, 1854.

FORM A.

Know all men by these presents, That we, _____, are held and firmly bound unto the United States of America, in the sum of _____ dollars, to be paid to the United States: for the payment whereof we bind ourselves, our heirs, executors and administrators, jointly and severally, firmly by these presents. Sealed with our seals, dated this _____ day of _____ in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and _____

The condition of this obligation is such, That if the above bounden _____ or either of them, or either of their heirs, executors, or administrators, shall, on or before the expiration of three years, to be computed from the date of the importation of the goods, wares, and merchandise hereafter mentioned, well and truly pay, or cause to be paid, unto the Collector of the Customs, for the port of _____ for the time being, the sum of _____ dollars, or the amount of duties to be ascertained as due, and owing on goods, wares, and merchandise imported by _____, in the _____, master, from _____ consisting of _____, or shall, in the mode prescribed by law, on or before the expiration of the three years aforesaid, withdraw the said goods from the public stores, where they may be deposited at the port of _____, then this obligation is to be void, otherwise to remain in full force and virtue.

Sealed and delivered in the presence of, &c.

FORM B.

This transportation bond witnesseth, that _____ has this day withdrawn from the warehouse at _____, the merchandise as per margin, of the value of _____ dollars, and the duty on which is _____ dollars, for transportation to the port of _____. Now the undersigned, for themselves, their heirs, and assigns, covenant and agree with the United States, to transport and deliver said merchandise to the proper officer of the Customs at said port, within _____ days, or failing to do so, to pay to the proper collecting officer of the United States, at the port from which the merchandise was withdrawn, the said duty of _____ dollars, and the additional duty of _____ dollars, imposed by the act of Congress, approved the 28th of March, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and fifty-four.

Sealed with our seals, this _____ day of _____, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and fifty _____.

Sealed and delivered in the presence of, &c.

FORM C.

Report of merchandise entered for transportation in bond at the port of _____ :-

Name of importer or owner.	Description of Merchandise.	Date of transportation entry.	Where destined.
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FORM D.

Report of merchandise rewarehoused at the port of _____ :-

Name of importer or owner.	Description of Merchandise.	Date of warehousing entry.	From what port transported.
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FORM E.

Know all men by these presents, That we, _____, are held and firmly bound unto the United States of America, in the sum of _____ dollars, to be paid to the United States: for the payment whereof we bind ourselves, our heirs, executors and adminis-

trators, jointly and severally, firmly by these presents. Sealed with our seals, dated this day of , in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and

The condition of this obligation is such, That if the above bounden , or either of them, or either of their heirs, executors, or administrators, shall, on or before the expiration of three years, to be computed from the day of the original importation of the goods, wares, and merchandise enumerated herein, well and truly pay, or cause to be paid, unto the Collector of the Customs, for the port of for the time being, dollars, or the amount of duty to be ascertained as due, and owing on goods, wares, and merchandise, entered this day for warehousing by , consisting of , or shall on or before the expiration of the three years aforesaid, in the mode prescribed by law, withdraw the said goods, wares, and merchandise from the warehouse at the port of , then this obligation to be void, otherwise to remain in full force and virtue.

Sealed and delivered in presence of, &c.

FORM F.

This transportation bond witnesseth that has this day entered at the Custom House at , for warehouse and transportation in bond to the port of , the merchandise as per margin imported by , in the master, from , of the value of dollars, and the duty on which is dollars.

Now the undersigned, for themselves, their heirs, and assigns, covenant and agree with the United States, to transport and deliver said merchandise to the proper officer of the customs at said port, within days or failing to do so, to pay to the proper collecting officer of the United States, at the port from which the merchandise was withdrawn, the said duty of dollars, and the additional duty of dollars, imposed by the act of Congress, approved the 28th day of March, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and fifty-four.

Sealed with our seals this day of , in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and

Sealed and delivered in the presence of, &c.

NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

LIGHTS ON THE COAST OF HOLLAND.

NOTICE TO MARINERS.

GRAVENHAGEN, 27th of October, 1853.

The Minister of the Marine hereby notifies all those whom it may concern, that the *catadioptric light* of the first class which has been introduced in the lighthouse of Kijkduin, was lit on the evening of the 25th of September last.

This improved fixed light is situated in $52^{\circ} 57' 4''$ north latitude, and $4^{\circ} 43' 30''$ longitude east from Greenwich. It is about 49 ells (yards) above high-water mark, and it illuminates a curve of the horizon of about 240° , namely, in a southerly direction 30° to the west, through the west, north, and east, and to the east 30° south.

From observations made on the deck of a pilot-boat, the eye being three yards above water, it appeared that the light of Kijkduin (being N. E. $\frac{1}{4}$ N., and the light of Egmond due south, sounding $8\frac{1}{2}$ fathoms) was lost out of sight or went down, the distance from it being about $4\frac{1}{2}$ Dutch maritime miles.

The observations were continued in the rigging of the pilot-boat, at about 15 yards above water; the lighthouse of Kijkduin being to the N. E. $\frac{1}{4}$ N., and the light at Egmond S. E. to E. $\frac{1}{4}$ E., (soundings $8\frac{1}{2}$ fathoms,) the first mentioned light disappeared or went down.

Thus the light at Kijkduin, from the elevation as indicated above, was visible about 5 or $5\frac{1}{2}$ maritime miles. It may have been visible at a greater or less distance, according to the condition of the atmosphere.

A few days later, the weather being clear, the observations were continued with the same pilot-boat, at the height of the Island of Texel. With the eye three yards above water, the light of Kijkduin disappeared to the S. $\frac{1}{4}$ W., while the light of Vlieland was plainly visible to the E. $\frac{1}{4}$ S., which cross-measurement give four miles as the shortest distance from the light at Kijkduin. By keeping to the shore to the E. S. E., the latter light (the eye being at an elevation of 15 yards above water) will appear over the downs of the Island of Texel, until the course changes to S. to W., when it

disappears behind the downs of the island, the sounding being about 15 fathoms, at a short distance from the "Eizerlandish" bottoms.

The light at Kijkduin in this its improved condition, even in ordinary wheather, has become serviceable for approaching the mouths of the Texel. From the observations which have just been mentioned, it is apparent that it retains an exceedingly bright light until it suddenly disappears from the view; when first seen above the horizon it is equally brilliant.

The measure made use of in the foregoing observations is that of the Dutch ell, (yard.) The variations in the compass having been measured, have been ascertained to be $21^{\circ} 51'$ northwestern.

The Minister of the Marine, J. ENSLIE.

BEST ROUTE FOR VESSELS FROM SAN FRANCISCO TO PERU.

[COMMUNICATED FOR THE MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.]

NATIONAL OBSERVATORY, Washington, March 20th, 1854.

SIR:—The clipper ship Comet, E. C. Gardner, is one of the vessels that are co-operating with us in the plan of observations for the "Wind and Current Chart."

She has just performed a famous run from California to New York. It is the shortest thence on record at this office, and the abstract log of it has been received. I beg leave to make it the subject of a special report.

That combination of wind and sea on the Polar side of the parallel of 45° South, which enables clipper ships to run down their *easting* with such astonishing speed, is not to be expected along a route which, like this, crosses and re-crosses the whole system of trade wind and calm belts of the ocean. Nevertheless, the 35th day out from San Francisco, this ship had crossed five of these belts, made sixty-eight degrees of longitude and ninety-five degrees of latitude, and doubled Cape Horn.

During the voyage she was six days in calm and light baffling winds, making on the average during these six days, only 2.8 knots per hour. Her greatest speed for any one day was 371 statute miles (320 knots.) From the Heads at San Francisco to the Bar at Sandy Hook, she was 76 days. Deducting for the six days of calm and baffling winds, she ran for the 70 days on an average, 205 miles (knots) per day. This is more than steamships on a long voyage—as from England to the Cape of Good Hope—usually make. Great skill and judgment appear to have been displayed in the navigation of this ship.

One of the drawbacks with which the vessels in the California trade have to contend, is the want of a return cargo; heretofore they have been in the habit of going to China for it, and occasionally from California to the Sandwich Islands for a return cargo of oil.

But since the publication of the last edition of "Sailing Directions," I have begun to receive in numbers, abstract logs of vessels bound both from Australia and California, to Peru for guano; hence I infer they go in ballast for it.

The facility with which the passage may be made from these two rival lands of gold, will, both in Europe and America, enter as an element into the question of freight.

In a commercial point of view the relative facility with which these guano islands may be reached from the two "Ophirs," is calculated to have bearings of some consequence to the trade both of California and Australia.

From California to these islands the route for the best winds coincides very nearly with an arc of a great circle; and the way, therefore, is plain.

But from San Francisco the route appears to be not understood at all; the most experienced navigators confess themselves to be at fault with regard to it, and as no special sailing directions have been given, I beg leave now to offer a few suggestions with regard to it.

The best route from California to the guano islands of Peru, is the track from California to the United States, until the belt of the S. E. trade winds be crossed, or until they will allow the guano bound vessel to lay up for her port.

Though the guano islands are in 12° S., vessels bound to them from California will frequently have to go as far south as 35° or 40° , or even farther, before they can lay up for them.

When a vessel, therefore, bound for Peru, comes out of San Francisco, her best course is to run down for the Equator about its intersection with the meridian of 115° or 120° , (125° is not too far,) and with topmast studding-sail set, to stand on to the southward until the wind hauls so as to allow her to lay up for her port; or when the wind fails so to haul, she should keep on south across the calm belt of Capricorn, and

with the west wind on the Polar side of these calms, run down easting enough, so that when she returns to the S. E. trades, they will lead her into port.

The usual passage from California to these Islands now occupies from 65 to 70 days, by the route here recommended it should not be so long.

The way is plain—dash down from California, not caring to make easting until the winds are fair for Callao. Every homeward-bound vessel from California crosses the track of the guano traders from Australia.

The Comet to where she crossed it (lat. 49° S., long. 107° W.) had 28 days; and from this crossing, (which is out of the route from San Francisco to Callao,) the guano traders from Australia have usually from 20 to 25 days to Callao.

The passage from San Francisco to the guano islands of Peru ought not, on the average, to occupy more than 55 days. Respectfully, &c.,

M. F. MAURY, Lieut. U. S. Navy.

Hon. J. C. DOBBIN, Secretary of the Navy, Washington.

MARINE DISASTERS ON THE LAKES IN 1853.

The *Buffalo Express* publishes a long and carefully prepared statement of marine disasters, and loss of life and property on the lakes during the year 1853, of which the following is a condensed summary:—

Total loss of property for 1853.....	\$874,153	
Total loss of lives for 1853.....	81	
Amount of loss by American vessels	635,223	
“ “ British	238,920	
“ “ Steam.....	461,800	
“ “ Sail.....	412,343	
“ “ Collision.....	55,828	
“ “ Explosion.....	78,394	
“ “ Fire.....	131,050	
“ “ Other causes	608,871	
Am't of loss on Lake Ontario—Steam	168,400	
“ “ Sail	94,077	282,477
“ Lake Erie—Steam.....	128,606	
“ “ Sail.....	121,906	250,512
“ Lake Huron—Steam.....	88,594	
“ “ Sail.....	62,744	151,338
“ Lake Michigan—Steam	23,700	
“ “ Sail	133,616	157,316
“ Lake Superior—Steam	82,500

Of the 266 disasters here detailed, 19 occurred in April, 30 in May, 17 in June, 11 in July, 28 in August, 30 in September, 39 in October, 30 in November, and 12 in December. Six steamers, two propellers, and thirty sail vessels have gone out of existence entirely. The number of accidents exceeds those of 1852 by 37, while the loss of property is less by \$118,516. The great decrease in loss of life and property by collision and explosion shows a very gratifying result of the first year's operations of the new law, relating to vessels propelled by steam, and the improved system of lights. With but one exception, (that of the *Ocean Wave* on Ontario,) no lives have been lost on any of the regular passage steamers by any accident whatever.

The loss by collision in 1852 was \$261,950, and loss of life, 206; while that of 1853 is, of life, 81, and of property by collision only \$55,828.

ELECTRIC TELEGRAPH FROM ORFORDNESS TO HOLLAND.

TRINITY-HOUSE, LONDON, February 21, 1854.

Permission having been granted by this Corporation that buoys marked with the words “Electric Telegraph” may be laid down in the line of direction of the submarine cable, notice is hereby given, that the buoys are now laid, and that it is desirable that no vessel should anchor within a quarter of a mile to the northward or southward of the line of the said buoys, which line is from the Orfordness High Light-house, E. S. E. by compass. By order,

J. HERBERT, Secretary.

RAILROAD, CANAL, AND STEAMBOAT STATISTICS.

THE OLD TURNPIKE.

We hear no more of the clanging hoof,
And the stage-coach rattling by;
For the steam king rules the traveled world,
And the old pike 's left to die.
The grass creeps o'er the dirty path,
And the stealthy daisies steal
Where once the stage horse, day by day,
Lifted his iron heel.

No more the weary stageer dreads
The toil of the coming morn;
No more the bustling landlord runs
At the sound of the echoing horn;
For the dust lies still upon the road,
And bright-eyed children play
Where once the clattering hoof and wheel
Rattled along the way.

No more we hear the cracking whip,
Or the strong wheel's rumbling sound;
And, ah, the water drives us on,
And an iron horse is found?

The coach stands rusting in the yard,
And the horse has sought the plow;
We have spanned the earth with an iron rail,
And the steam-king rules us now!

The old turnpike is a pike no more,
Wide open stands the gate;
We have made us a road for our horse to stride,
Which we ride at a flying rate;
We have fill'd up the valleys and level'd the hills,
And tunneled the mountain side;
And round the rough crag's dizzy verge
Fearlessly we ride!

On—on—on—with a haughty front!
A puff, a shriek, and a bound;
While the tardy echoes wake too late
To bubble back the sound;
And the old pike road is left alone,
And the stageers seek the plow;
We have circled the earth with an iron rail,
And the steam-king rules us now.

ATLANTIC AND ST. LAWRENCE RAILROAD.

We give below an abstract of the annual report of the Atlantic and St. Lawrence Railroad Company, showing the condition of that road December 31st, 1853:—

Length of line.....	149 miles.		
Weight of rail.....	63 pounds per yard.		
Capital paid in.....	\$1,692,200	Depots.....	No. 28
Amount of indebtedness.....	8,614,520	Engine-houses.....	6
Amount due corporation.....	53,648	Shops.....	1
No. of passengers in 1853....	161,854	Engines.....	23
Through passengers.....	64,047	Cars.....	453
Way passengers.....	97,808	Miles run by passenger trains..	173,374
Received from passengers....	\$130,435	Miles run by freight trains....	155,841
Received from freight.....	167,733	Miles run by other trains.....	29,187
Received from other sources..	17,869	Whole number of stockholders.	1,885
		Number residing in Maine.....	1,836
Total receipts in 1853.....	\$316,038	Dividend in 1853, 6 per cent.	

OPERATIONS OF THE RAILWAYS OF MASSACHUSETTS, 1853.

COMPILED BY DAVID M. BALFOUR, ESQ., FOR THE MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE, FROM THE ANNUAL REPORTS TO THE LEGISLATURE.

Boston, April 1st, 1854.

To FREEMAN HUNT, *Editor of the Merchants' Magazine.*

DEAR SIR:—Inclosed you will find a table of the operations of the railways of Massachusetts for 1853, submitted for insertion in the columns of your excellent journal.

Yours truly,

DAVID M. BALFOUR.

In the following tables, "Interest," and "Amount paid other Companies in tolls," are not considered as running expenses, and are therefore deducted from the total of expenses; and the amount paid other Companies in tolls, and amount received for interest, are deducted from the total of receipts.

Names of railways.	Length in miles. Of main branch-trunk roads, chas. sidings.	Double trunk.	Receipts.			Expenses.			Net income p. c. on cost.
			From passengers.	From freight and mail, &c.	Total.	Of road-bed, power, miscellaneous.	Total.	Net in- come.	
Western Worcester.....	45	24	\$4,850,755	\$481,922	\$5,332,677	\$887,920	\$6,220,597	\$455,538	\$8 90
Western Worcester.....	155	62	9,953,920	796,216	10,750,136	1,395,924	\$984,977	\$431,692	7 50
1-Charles River.....	9	..	253,804	8,305	262,109	10,988	449,766	778,468	6 69
Providence & Worcester.....	43	..	1,806,076	139,267	1,945,343	262,109	170,550	191,893	6 84
Providence & Nashua.....	46	..	96,780	7,149	103,929	19,297	65,390	91,896	5 73
Fitchburg & Worcester.....	14	..	1,342,594	96,780	1,439,374	15,066	17,905	18,301	5 18
2-Amherst & Belchertown.....	19	..	319,159	16,988	336,147	9,901	19,468	5,750	5 67
Connecticut River.....	50	9	263,744	10,772	274,516	23,565	104,683	102,098	5 91
Pittsfield & North Adams.....	19	..	1,892,945	113,794	2,006,739	27,875	96,209	96,209	7 00
3-Berkshire.....	21	..	413,568	900	424,468	5,110	13,194	41,400	7 00
4-Stockbridge & Pittsfield.....	22	..	600,000	..	600,000	31,400	7 00
5-West Stockbridge.....	3	..	448,700	..	448,700	1,805	4 35
6-Medway Branch.....	26	..	9,221,068	96,556	9,317,624	5,807	30,900	93,408	8 15
Providence.....	4	..	36,073	1,797	37,870	9,941	7 08
Taunton.....	43	12	3,576,641	13,594	3,590,235	69,403	157,330	93,485	7 08
New Bedford.....	11	1	59,928	1,504	61,432	12,842	39,764	31,491	8 83
7-Stoughton Branch.....	20	1	81,904	1,948	83,852	16,861	45,833	46,808	7 39
Old Colony.....	4	..	7,370	174	7,544	13,092	6,949	6,943	6 15
8-Dorchester & Milton.....	37	8	9,203,535	104,572	9,308,107	40,463	923,590	141,046	6 39
9-South Shore.....	3	..	117,798	5,400	123,198	..	157,458	7,530	5 74
Fall River.....	11	..	435,164	..	435,164	94,973	5 74
Cape Cod Branch.....	42	..	1,050,000	7,590	1,057,590	31,167	96,905	167,594	11 93
Fitchburg.....	28	1	633,007	91,009	724,016	6,445	18,790	36,698	5 70
Vermont & Massachusetts.....	51	17	3,716,870	7,978	3,724,848	87,984	242,533	402,114	6 50
10-Harvard Branch.....	69	8	3,456,313	111,471	3,567,784	38,823	76,903	294,546	9 50
11-Lexington & W. Cambridge.....	7	..	95,701	..	95,701	88,300	..
12-Peterboro & Shirley.....	14	..	292,366	..	292,366	5,965	9 59
Lowell.....	26	2	2,044,536	9,144	2,053,680	60,720	196,790	17,731	6 86
Nashua.....	18	..	651,215	84,416	735,631	17,806	40,754	61,153	9 30
Lawrence.....	15	..	263,658	25,402	289,060	3,292	13,882	31,417	8 84
Salmon & Lowell.....	17	..	362,852	24,958	387,810	30,153	15,849	9,686	9 87
13-Stony Brook.....	13	..	266,164	..	266,164	16,014	6 00
14-Boston & Maine.....	74	9	4,111,340	976,698	5,088,038	109,498	993,992	384,606	9 74
15-South Reading Branch.....	8	..	276,297	5,950	282,247	92,441	..
16-Saugus Branch.....	8	..	170,419	10,756	181,175	8,743	..
Eastern.....	55	20	3,691,874	67,412	3,759,286	53,468	190,737	395,703	6 90
Essex.....	20	1	738,425	14,935	753,360	5,909	93,981	35,718	1 98
Newburyport.....	15	..	981,791	17,761	999,552	4,178	11,393	10,004	3 55
Grand Junction.....	0	..	1,363,712	18,897	1,382,609	94,490	1 77
Total.....	1,066	420	53,348,659	4,182,790	57,531,449	919,856	9,683,207	3,461,977	Ar. 6 61

Names of Railways.	Number of Miles run by			Total.	Total No. of tons (not including passengers) carried 1 mile.	W't in tons of Fr't trains (not including freight) carried 1 mile.	W't in tons of Pass. trains (not including pas's'rs) carried 1 mile.	Tons merch & gravel carried 1 mile.	Tons merch & gravel carried in cars.	No. pas's'ers carried one mile.	No. pas's'ers carried in the cars.	Net income per mile run.	Expenses per mile run.	Receipts per mile run.
	Passenger trains.	Freight trains.	Other.											
Worcester.....	324,786	176,528	14,266	513,580	46,165,310	16,028,915	24,739,831	11,577,498	349,715	94,700,519	1,490,011	\$0.64	\$0.83	\$1.73
Western.....	324,865	580,314	34,393	947,382	46,165,310	16,028,915	24,739,831	11,577,498	349,715	94,700,519	1,490,011	\$0.64	\$0.83	\$1.73
1-Charles River.....	18,200	1,080	648	19,928	1,032,473	51,920,468	94,000	38,054	6,010	434,700	4,389,914	0.70	0.51	0.61
Providence & Worcester.....	125,503	57,328	1,763	184,393	8,000,000	14,794,954	9,000,000	9,994,954	83,780	6,994,643	6,994,643	0.66	0.93	1.58
Worcester & Nashua.....	83,919	46,544	2,370	132,833	8,109,945	3,970,998	2,985,000	1,974,717	91,466	3,467,500	2,100,363	0.64	0.63	0.97
Fitchburg & Worcester.....	29,350	8,708	480	38,538	1,085,579	250,000	460,000	375,579	31,162	697,101	595,571	0.52	0.50	1.02
2-Amherst & Belchertown.....	108,537	71,110	12,416	192,063	4,000,000	4,000,000	5,300,000	2,365,904	98,920	4,301,426	337,074	0.53	0.61	1.24
Connecticut River.....	15,678	6,894	2,718	24,890	1,900,000	1,900,000	600,000	386,650	24,669	835,858	35,059	1.05	0.85	1.90
Pittsfield & North Adams.....	29,526	20,536	1,126	51,188	358,320	358,320	301,340	393,868	23,873	827,120	42,640
2-Berkshire.....	27,437	13,728	41,165	115,420	115,420	145,963	125,346	7,628	565,317	94,127
5-Stockbridge & Pittsfield.....	67,542	16,276	3,428	87,246	745,100	745,100	457,554	826,810	34,859	2,692,703	133,549	0.34	0.42	0.76
Boston & New York Central.....	224,562	76,694	4,478	305,734	1,200,000	1,200,000	1,450,000	4,712,754	142,136	11,150,098	748,051	0.83	0.82	1.65
Providence.....	29,734	8,756	202	38,692	993,782	993,782	997,000	551,898	52,772	1,705,672	160,307	0.56	1.73	2.29
Taunton.....	51,200	13,146	90	64,436	988,900	988,900	1,750,840	584,017	41,142	2,423,493	140,234	0.73	1.17	1.90
New Bedford.....	175,537	38,961	23,997	237,795	10,592,960	10,592,960	5,792,937	1,806,414	118,410	10,725,734	721,450	0.59	0.94	1.53
7-Stoughton Branch.....
8-Dorchester & Milton.....
9-South Shore.....	90,225	55,938	1,887	148,058	4,881,683	4,881,683	4,897,840	9,818,595	99,524	7,453,708	358,173	0.85	1.13	1.98
Fall River.....	34,806	17,403	300	52,509	800,000	800,000	800,000	334,184	30,509	1,236,050	75,170	0.70	0.61	1.31
Cape Cod Branch.....	286,523	155,119	19,957	461,599	41,484,578	41,484,578	10,486,921	12,184,140	430,606	17,314,206	1,909,675	0.49	0.87	1.36
Fitchburg.....	116,954	65,799	13,850	196,603	3,997,944	3,997,944	821,457	2,138,869	79,699	9,801,929	149,795	0.44	0.80	1.24
Vermont & Massachusetts.....
10-Harvard Branch.....
11-Lexington & W. Cambridge.....
12-Peterboro & Shirley.....	164,697	79,350	31,625	275,681	9,630,430	9,630,430	6,370,430	7,542,571	342,629	9,576,908	657,391	0.43	1.15	1.58
Lowell.....	57,459	26,515	6,138	100,112	2,780,430	2,780,430	1,716,753	2,625,178	218,024	3,268,650	217,910	0.61	0.93	1.54
Nashua.....	31,529	1,537	33,066	830,036	830,036	934,750	184,998	94,913	1,990,433	109,568	0.95	0.60	1.55
Lawrence.....	44,820	10,507	55,327	1,959,739	1,959,739	947,462	730,599	37,206	1,193,941	123,108	0.18	0.83	1.01
Salem & Lowell.....	379,019	114,637	92,672	516,328	30,410,640	30,410,640	9,437,586	8,006,170	251,327	27,486,685	1,890,758	0.78	0.74	1.53
13-Stony Brook.....
14-Boston & Maine.....
15-South Portland Branch.....	10,504	48	10,552	59,768	59,768	59,768	59,768	59,768
16-Saugus Branch.....	261,323	50,711	42,065	354,159	2,770,605	2,770,605	2,770,605	2,770,605	102,617	2,770,605	102,617	0.92	0.71	1.63
Eastern.....	38,960	13,729	52,689	104,443	104,443	104,443	104,443	13,380	244,269	83,520	0.26	0.63	0.89
Essex.....	60,096	14,316	101,412	372,092	372,092	372,092	372,092	8,675	665,405	684,266	0.16	0.10	0.26
Newburyport.....	0.10	0.10	0.26
Grand Junction.....	3,443	3,443	69,565	69,565	69,565	69,565	10,570	61,081	7.11	3.29	10.40
Total.....	3,216,461	1,792,545	241,366	5,250,362	149,804,441	149,804,441	108,908,467	95,985,832	3,041,783	186,915,713	11,569,992	\$0.83	\$1.53	\$2.13

1. Opened throughout December 1st, 1853.
2. Opened throughout May 9th, 1853.
3. Operated by the Housatonic Railway Company.
4. Operated by the Housatonic Railway Company.
5. Operated by the Berkshire Railway Company.
6. Opened throughout December 1st, 1852.
7. Operated by the Providence Railway Company.
8. Operated by the Old Colony Railway Company.
9. Operated by the Old Colony Railway Company.
10. Operated by the Fitchburg Railway Company.
11. Operated by the Fitchburg Railway Company.
12. Operated by the Fitchburg Railway Company.
13. Operated by the Nashua and Lowell Railway Company.
14. Interest, and Portland, Saco, and Portsmouth Railway surplus, \$17,750, deducted from receipts.
15. Operated by the Eastern Railway Company.
16. Opened throughout February 1st, 1853.

ILLINOIS AND MICHIGAN CANAL.

While the Board of Public Works of Ohio have been advancing the rates of toll on the Canals, says the Cincinnati *Price Current*, other States have been pursuing a course more in accordance with the commercial spirit of the age. In the rates of toll on the Illinois and Michigan Canal, an important reduction has been made, amounting on most articles to fifty per cent. The Ohio board gives as a reason for the late advance, the unfavorable financial condition of the works; but the course they have pursued is not in these days of progressive movements calculated to increase the revenues. Were there no channels for the conveyance of freight that would come into competition with the canal, the course adopted might lead to the accomplishment of the object in view; but such is not the case, for we have opposition lines in and out of our State, and to a considerable extent the Illinois Canal must be regarded as a competitor for the trade of the Miami and Erie Canal. Last season, sugar and molasses were taken to some extent up the Mississippi River and through the Illinois Canal. Western products are also taken through the same channel, and thence forwarded eastward; and dry goods, hardware, and other merchandise from the East, are forwarded through the same channel to the West. The difference in expenses by this route and those via this city are not very great, but the policy here pursued by the directors of the Illinois Canal, being the opposite to that of our board, the difference is working in favor of the former.

The following is a comparison of the present tolls on the Illinois, and the Miami and Erie Canals, per mile, on each 1,000 lbs., for a few leading articles:—

	Illinois. Mills.	Miami. Mills.		Illinois. Mills.	Miami. Mills.
Beef.....	3	6	Lard.....	5	5
Butter.....	5	6	Merchandise, including dry		
Bacon.....	3	5	goods, hardware, cutlery..	5	5
Barley.....	3	4	Provisions.....	3	6
Corn.....	3	4	Pork.....	3	5
Flour.....	4	5	Wheat.....	3	5
Hemp.....	4	4	Whisky.....	3	2
Iron, pig and scrap.....	4	4	Sugar.....	5	5
Iron, wrought.....	5	6	Molasses.....	5	5
Iron, railroad.....	4	6	Coffee.....	5	6

Now, if the tolls lately charged on the Miami and Erie Canal were so low as to make a losing business for the State, what is to become of the interests of the Illinois Canal, where the rates of toll are twenty-five to fifty per cent lower than those at present charged on property passing through the former. If the Ohio Board have discovered the only remedy for the present suffering revenues of the Ohio Public Works, the Directors of the Illinois Canal must have been stupidly neglectful with reference to the experience of their neighbors. It may well be suspected, however, that no attempt has been made as yet on the part of our board to reach the root of the evil, which has been acting as a canker upon the canal funds; and as this has possibly been discovered by our neighbors, it may account for their apparent indifference to our valuable experience.

RAILROAD AND STEAMBOAT ACCIDENTS.

The following are the number of railroad and steamboat accidents, with the number of killed and wounded, in each month, which have occurred in the United States from the 1st of January, 1853, to the 30th of March, 1854. Only those accidents are enumerated which have been attended with loss of life and injury to persons:—

	RAILROADS.			STEAMBOATS.		
	Accidents.	Killed.	Wounded.	Accidents.	Killed.	Wounded.
January, 1853	12	25	40	4	66	33
February	6	6	11	1	120	..
March	14	24	57	3	30	17
April	4	25	54	3	58	21
May	8	54	48
June	5	5	19	4	19	17
July	11	8	23	1	7	2
August	14	35	94	2	2	5
September	18	13	35	3	8	14
October	19	14	34	4	18	23
November	12	11	32	3	18	10
December	8	7	37	3	13	16
Total in 1853.....	138	227	483	31	359	153
January, 1854	21	10	26	8	139	20
February	20	12	37	5	54	24
March	11	18	78	4	148	23
Total, 14½ months.....	190	262	624	48	691	225

FITCHBURG RAILROAD OF MASSACHUSETTS.

The annual report of the Directors of the Fitchburg Railroad Company was presented to the stockholders at their meeting on the 31st January, 1854. The present capital stock of the company is \$3,540,000.

Earnings for the past year have been.....	\$645,451 87
Expenditures, dividends, &c.....	643,217 71
Surplus	\$2,233 66
Surplus last year	50,989 56
Total surplus.....	\$53,219 22

Of the amount included in expense, \$57,911 have been expended for new locomotives, new track, new freight-cars &c., not strictly chargeable to the running of the road for the past year. The debt of the company at the present time is \$194,257; and the assets, as stated, \$201,029 76. Of the debt, \$91,500 is on account of the new buildings just erected by the company in Boston. The increase from passengers over last year, (11 months,) has been \$104,022; increase of freight, 30,854 tons, notwithstanding the loss of freight by the partial failure of the ice crop.

PUBLIC WORKS OF PENNSYLVANIA.

The following, prepared from official figures, will show the receipts and expenditures, (ordinary and extraordinary) of the public works of Pennsylvania for the last five years:—

	Expenses.	Receipts.		Expenses.	Receipts.
1849.....	\$1,631,001	\$1,628,860	1852.....	\$2,439,418	\$1,938,574
1850.....	1,336,728	1,743,818	1853.....	2,550,636	1,893,246
1851.....	1,545,698	1,719,788			
Total.....				9,553,546	8,924,346

This shows an expenditure over receipts of \$630,000.

OPENING AND CLOSING OF NAVIGATION ON LAKE CHAMPLAIN.

Capt. Plumbé, of the Ferry at Ogdensburgh, furnishes the following statement, showing the opening and closing of navigation at Ogdensburgh for the past twelve years:—

Steamer Lady of the Lake arrived in Ogdensburgh from Detroit, August 18th, 1841, and commenced running as ferry-boat to Prescott, went over that night to Prescott, being the first trip made by her, and on the next day, the 19th, continued until the close of navigation which was the 30th November, 1841.

Commenced.....	March 31, 1842	Laid up.....	November 29, 1842
Commenced.....	April 20, 1843	Laid up.....	December 12, 1843
Commenced.....	April 1, 1844	Laid up.....	November 27, 1844
Commenced.....	March 31, 1845	Laid up.....	December 2, 1845
Commenced.....	March 31, 1846	Laid up.....	December 11, 1846
Commenced.....	April 12, 1847	Laid up.....	December 20, 1847
Commenced.....	March 28, 1848	Laid up.....	December 21, 1848
Commenced.....	March 26, 1849	Laid up.....	December 25, 1849
Commenced.....	March 18, 1850	Laid up.....	December 18, 1850
Commenced.....	April 1, 1851	Laid up.....	December 14, 1851
Commenced.....	April 13, 1852	Laid up.....	January 3, 1852
Commenced.....	March 30, 1853	Laid up.....	December 28, 1853

PASSAGE RATES OF PACIFIC MAIL STEAMERS.

The following rates of passage on the vessels of the Pacific Mail Steam Navigation Company from Panama to the following ports have been adopted:—

San Buenaventura.....	\$60 00	Iquiqua.....	230 00
Guayaquil.....	100 00	Cobija.....	240 00
Paita.....	110 00	Caldera (Port Capiapo).....	250 00
Lambayeque.....	130 00	Huasco.....	255 00
Huachacho.....	130 00	Coquimbo.....	260 00
Casma.....	135 00	Valparaiso.....	270 00
Huacho.....	140 00	Constitucion.....	295 37
Callao.....	150 00	Tome.....	304 50
Pisco.....	167 00	Talcahuana.....	304 50
Islay.....	210 00	Valdivia.....	321 75
Arica.....	222 00	Ancud.....	330 38

RAILROAD TO THE PACIFIC.

A pass has been discovered through the Rocky Mountains, between the head-waters of the Missouri and those of Clark's Fork of the Columbia, much lower than the "South Pass," which has been the ordinary place of transit by emigrants to California and Oregon. This summit is called "Badot's Pass." The South Pass, by Col. Fremont's measurement, is 7,490 feet above the level of the sea; Badot's Pass, by Lieut. Saxton's measurement, is but 4,990 feet, making a difference of 2,500 feet. This is a difference equal to the whole height of the Alleghany Mountains where they are crossed by the Pennsylvania Railroad.

The distance from Chicago to Puget's Sound, which is about 100 miles north of the mouth of the Columbia River, and a very excellent harbor, is given as 1,752 miles in a straight line, and by the contemplated railroad as 1,960 miles, as follows:—

In Illinois.....miles.	70	In Missouri Territory.....miles.	420
In Wisconsin.....	290	Washington do. (Oregon formerly)	560
In Minnesota.....	620		
Total.....			1,960

That is, 78½ hours' travel at 25 miles an hour.

The first 70 miles of this road are already nearly made, and 990 miles are said to be under acts of incorporation. The route is from Chicago via St. Pauls, Falls of St. Anthony, up the Mississippi, 70 miles; westward, crossing the broad and fertile valley of the Red River of the North, the Missouri at the Great Bend, up the Missouri to the

Mountains, the head-waters of the Columbia, through the Cascade Mountains, and across the country to Puget's Sound.

This route is described as possessing very great advantages. It passes through much fertile land, which is well wooded and watered; Puget's Sound is nearer to Asia than any other part of the Pacific coast; and Chicago is of near and easy access to that part of our Atlantic border which is first reached by steamers from Europe. If Badot's Pass should prove as favorable as described, this route would offer great facilities for European trade, and especially for the trade of Great Britain, and would place that country almost in a state of dependence upon us; from Halifax, Portland, Boston, New York, passing by the Canadas and the Lakes, and the Red River of the North, and terminating near British Oregon and Vancouver's Island, it must be indispensable to Britain as the great line of her trade, as well as of a large portion of our own, on its way to China, Japan, Australia, and India.

STATISTICS OF POPULATION, &c.

MIGRATION FROM NEW ENGLAND AND NEW YORK.

An intelligent correspondent of the *Times*, in some interesting "Notes on the Census" of 1850, furnishes an interesting statement relative to internal migration. The progress of the United States proves conclusively that the *innate law* of human nature to move in certain directions has had more influence over the growth of certain States than any other thing. But we quote from the correspondent of the *Times* as follows:—

1. OF MIGRATION FROM NEW ENGLAND. The census shows the following facts:—

Born in New England	2,851,523
Born and living there	2,101,324
Emigrants to other States	750,499

Of the existing generation born in New England, 25 per cent have migrated from there to other States. Where did they go? It is a common opinion that the largest part of New England emigration went to the West, but this is a mistake. There is first a large movement within New England itself, which we must deduct. Of this movement outward, the largest current has been to New York, which consists of two parts—the mercantile part, going to the city for trade or adventure, and the farming part, the most considerable, going to Western New York. After this is the current to the Northwestern States, which makes up nearly all the residue. The migration from New England to New York and the Northwest was as follows:—

To New York	206,630
To the Northwest	162,707

Many of the same persons, however, who emigrated to Western New York, again moved to Northern Ohio, Michigan, and Illinois; so that a much larger proportion than appears, finally found themselves in the Northwest. In the Southern States few New England people are found. In ten States there are only 16,000, and of these one-fourth are in the city of New Orleans. Indeed, except professional men or merchants, no New England men are found at the South. In fine, New England people have moved in their own parallel of latitude. And, except for some peculiar cause, this the universal rule of emigration.

2. OF MIGRATION FROM NEW YORK. New York, with all its growth, is continually sending out great numbers of emigrants to the West. The proportion is but little below that of New England. Thus:—

Born in New York	2,698,414
Born and living there	2,151,196
Emigrants to other States	547,218

The emigration is about 20 per cent, or one-fifth. Contrary, I imagine, to the common opinion, New York is a far greater contributor to the growth of the West than New England. Indeed, the great bulk of New York emigration is to the Northwest.

POPULATION OF THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE.

The Ottoman Empire extends over a part of Europe, Asia, and Africa, embracing an area of about 913,000 square miles. The Turkish possessions in Europe generally pass by the name of Rumili, and those in Asia by the name of Anadolu, though, properly speaking, Rumili is but an eyelet of Albania and Macedonia, while Anadolu means only that part of the Asiatic provinces in which the Turkish and Arabic are spoken. The African possessions are called Garb.

Including the tributary provinces, the population is as follows:—

EUROPEAN TURKEY (RUMILI.)		
Thrace	1,800,000	
Bulgaria	4,000,000	
Moldavia	1,400,000	
Wallachia	2,000,000	
Bosnia and Herzagowina	1,400,000	
Rumelia	2,600,000	
Servia	1,000,000	
Islands of the Archipelago	700,000	
		15,500,000
ASIATIC TURKEY (ANADOLU)		
Asia Minor	10,700,000	
Syrians, Mesopotamia and Kurdistan	4,450,000	
Arabia (Mecca, Medina, Habesh)	900,000	
		16,050,000
AFRICAN TURKEY (GARB.)		
Egypt	2,000,000	
Tripolis, Fezzan, Tunis	1,800,000	
		3,800,000
Total		35,350,000

Dividing the population into races and tribes, the result is as follows:—

Races or Tribes.	In Europe.	In Asia.	In Africa.	Total.
Ottomans	1,100,000	10,700,000	11,800,000
Slavonians	7,200,000	7,200,000
Rumanians	4,000,000	4,000,000
Arnauts	1,500,000	1,500,000
Greeks	1,000,000	1,000,000	2,000,000
Armenians	400,000	2,000,000	2,400,000
Jews	70,000	100,000	170,000
Tartars	230,000	230,000
Arabs	900,000	3,800,000	4,700,000
Syrians and Chaldeans	235,000	235,000
Druses	25,000	25,000
Kurds	1,000,000	1,000,000
Turkomans	90,000	90,000
Total	15,500,000	16,050,000	3,800,000	35,350,000

Taking the population according to religious creeds the result is as follows:—

	In Europe.	In Asia.	In Africa.	Total.
Mahomedan	3,800,000	12,950,000	3,800,000	20,550,000
Greeks and Armenians ..	11,370,000	2,360,000	13,730,000
Roman Catholic	260,000	640,000	900,000
Jews	70,000	100,000	170,000
Total	15,500,000	16,050,000	3,800,000	35,350,000

There are now also about 2,000 Protestants domiciled in Turkey. They are divided into ten communities, three belonging to Constantinople and the suburbs, and the other seven to Brussa, Ismid, Adabazar, Merzipli n, Trebizond, Erzeroum, and Aintab. Nor is the country deficient in Gipsies, who, though professing the religion of the majority of the inhabitants among whom they live, have in reality no religion whatever. Ethnographically they are Indians; politically, Turkish subjects; geographically, vagabonds; and religiously, heathens at best.—*Michelson's Turkey.*

POPULATION OF UTAH TERRITORY.

From the minutes of the Mormon General Conference, which was held in Great Salt Lake City on the 6th of October, 1853, we gather the following statistics, in which is embraced the entire population of Utah Territory :—

	Seventies.	High Priests.	Elders.	Saints.	Children.	Total Pop.
Salt Lake City....	598	208	244	2,898	1,659	5,979
Salt Lake County...	220	53	60	1,091	661	2,273
Utah County.....	292	105	152	1,955	1,175	4,064
Juab County.....	23	10	13	94	75	229
San Pete County...	59	29	16	442	182	745
Millard County....	28	8	24	118	97	304
Iron County.....	63	23	77	335	247	847
Tooele County.....	17	4	5	127	60	205
Davis County.....	136	56	37	689	485	1,598
Weber County....	141	64	61	840	670	1,932
Total.....	1,572	560	689	8,639	5,307	18,206
Population according to United States census in 1850.....						11,355
Increase						6,851

Besides the above classifications, there are nine apostles, all located in Great Salt Lake City, fifty-five bishops, two hundred and fifty-four priests, ninety-five deacons, and two hundred and eight teachers. During the year subsequent to the 6th October, 1852, eighteen of the saints had been excommunicated. One hundred and thirty nine of the Mormon priests and elders are on missionary expeditions in other parts, and in foreign countries.

The following is the recorded number of births and deaths in the Territory between the 6th of October, 1852, and the same date in 1853 :—

	Births.	D'ths.		Births.	D'ths.
Salt Lake City.....	299	99	Iron County	46	4
Salt Lake County	102	36	Tooele County	7	2
Utah County..	212	52	Davis County.....	85	15
Juab County	16	13	Weber County.....	86	49
San Pete County.....	41	12			
Millard County.....	10	1	Total.....	904	253

No reports were received from the towns of Tooele, in Tooele County, and Mountainville, in Utah County, and their returns are not, consequently, embraced in either of the above tables.

POPULATION OF PARIS.

Thirteenth century.....	120,000	In 1806	547,756
In 1474	150,000	In 1808	580,609
Under Henri II.	210,000	In 1809	794,596
Under Louis XIV.....	492,600	In 1817	713,976
In 1719	509,630	In 1827	890,431
From 1752 to 1762	576,650	In 1831	774,328
In 1776, according to Buffon...	658,000	In 1836	909,126
In 1778, according to Moihan...	670,000	In 1841	*912,033
In 1784, according to Necker ..	660,000	In 1846	1,053,897
At end of reign of Louis XVI..	610,620	Whole Department of the Seine.	1,364,467
In 1798	640,504	Finally, in 1851, (last census) ..	1,053,262
In 1802	672,000		

In 1852, 33,284 children were born at Paris—of whom 22,426 were legitimate, and 10,858 illegitimate. Of the total number, 16,810 were boys. In the same year, 27,890 persons died—of whom 13,877 were males; and 10,434 marriages were contracted. The total population of France in 1700 was 19,669,000; in 1831, 32,660,934; in 1846, 35,400,486; and in 1851, 35,780,059.

* Not including the soldiers on service, the absent, and children at nurse.

RISE AND FALL OF THE STATES OF THE UNION.

Since the first census of the United States, in 1790, great changes have taken place in the relative position of the original "Thirteen," as well as that of the newer States since their entrance into the Confederacy. The *Wall-street Journal*, of New York, has an interesting article upon this subject, from which we gather the following table, from which it will be seen that 13 stood higher and 15 lower than when they started, Arkansas being the only State that has maintained its rank unchanged, though her position has been changed each ten years:—

Risen	From.	Fallen	From.
Pennsylvania.....	8 to 2	Virginia.....	1 to 4
New York.....	6 to 1	Massachusetts.....	2 to 6
Georgia.....	12 to 9	N. Carolina.....	4 to 10
Kentucky.....	13 to 8	Maryland.....	6 to 17
Tennessee.....	16 to 5	S. Carolina.....	7 to 14
Ohio.....	17 to 3	Connecticut.....	8 to 21
Mississippi.....	19 to 15	New Jersey.....	9 to 19
Alabama.....	19 to 12	New Hampshire.....	10 to 22
Indiana.....	20 to 7	Vermont.....	11 to 23
Missouri.....	22 to 13	Rhode Island.....	14 to 23
Illinois.....	23 to 11	Delaware.....	15 to 30
Michigan.....	24 to 20	Maine.....	12 to 16
Wisconsin.....	30 to 24	Louisiana.....	17 to 18
		District of Columbia.....	18 to 33
		Florida.....	26 to 31

Texas, California, with Oregon, Utah, New Mexico, and Minnesota Territories, are, of course, too young to enter into the comparison. There is material for a good deal of interesting and profitable study in the facts so vividly presenting the history of the States of the Union, from the beginning of their career to the present time.

EMIGRATION FROM LIVERPOOL IN 1853.

The following interesting table, says the *Liverpool Albion*, for which we are indebted to the obliging head clerk at the government emigration office, shows the number of emigrants who have taken their departure from this port for all foreign ports during each month in the past year, with a classification of the countries to which they belonged. The numbers under the head "by short ships," refer to those who have proceeded in ships which have not come under the inspection of the government officers. It should also be stated that the classification applies only to steerage passengers, cabin passengers being exempt from the operation of the law in this respect:—

	Cabin.	English.	Scotch.	Irish.	Other Countries.	Total.	By Short Ships.
January.....	31	1,844	340	4,153	112	5,980	864
February.....	22	2,237	694	10,025	274	13,322	1,110
March.....	471	5,128	1,549	12,297	1,758	21,149	860
April.....	212	4,318	321	20,003	3,081	27,935	1,128
May.....	251	3,519	950	16,649	2,833	24,202	1,001
June.....	144	1,516	520	13,906	2,617	18,748	1,627
July.....	512	2,352	490	12,396	2,041	17,691	1,114
August.....	512	2,206	624	14,122	1,130	18,594	1,744
September.....	283	2,225	269	17,227	2,608	22,512	1,945
October.....	266	1,880	635	12,413	2,278	17,472	1,066
November.....	113	1,684	628	1,313	1,225	12,963	1,766
December.....	91	505	395	1,606	480	3,157	1,514

Totals..... 2,924 29,839 7,415 144,110 20,337 203,725 15,747

It appears from this return that the total number of passengers who took their departure hence for all ports during the past year, was 219,472, of whom 2,924 were cabin passengers, 144,110 Irish, 29,839 English, 7,415 Scotch, 20,337 other countries, (principally German,) the remaining number, 15,747, being composed of those who

proceeded in "short ships." It will be seen, therefore, that more than one-half of this flood of emigration was supplied by Ireland. The majority of the Irish emigrants go to America, comparatively few being amongst the adventurers to our gold colonies. In the conveyance of this multitude of people 947 ships were employed, of an aggregate tonnage of 844,658 tons, manned by crews to the number of 8,837 men.

PROGRESS OF POPULATION IN MISSOURI.

A State census of Missouri, taken in the year 1852, compares thus with the leading items of the census of 1850 :—

	Whites.	Free.	Slaves.	Total col'd.	Total pop.
1850.....	592,004	2,518	87,422	90,040	682,044
1852.....	634,984	2,523	87,207	89,733	724,667

This shows an increase of 42,980 whites, and a decrease of 215 slaves and 92 free blacks. This decrease, as well as that of Kentucky, (4,000,) is probably caused by the emigration to Texas, which has, during the last few seasons, been very great.

STATISTICS OF AGRICULTURE, &c.

AGRICULTURAL STATISTICS OF MASSACHUSETTS.

The First Annual Report of the Secretary of the State Board of Agriculture has been laid before the Massachusetts Legislature. We gather from the report a few interesting statistics relative to the more important staples of that State :—

Of Indian corn there were raised in the year 1850, 2,295,856 bushels, being an increase of 520,782 bushels during the ten years preceding 1850. The average yield of corn in 1840 did not exceed 20 or 25 bushels to the acre, while the average yield at the present time is supposed to exceed 35 bushels. Last year the yield was probably 10 per cent greater than in 1850. The tendency of farmers for the last ten years has been to cultivate highly small quantities of land.

The yield of upland hay in 1850 was 483,228 tons, showing an increase of about 16,000 tons in the total, and a slight increase in the average yield per acre, making it about nine-tenths of a ton. There are 40,867 acres of salt marsh in the State, which produce but about 33,575 tons annually, or three-fourths of a ton to the acre.

The yield of wheat has been decreasing for some years. In 1840 this crop amounted to 101,178 bushels, and in 1850 to 28,487 bushels, there being an average yield per acre of about 18 bushels. Of rye, 441,208 bushels were raised in 1850, and 453,705 in 1840; the average yield per acre is a little more than 14 bushels. The average yield of barley is 21 bushels to the acre. It is not as extensively cultivated as formerly. Oats averaged 30 bushels to the acre last season, the total produce being 1,210,238 bushels, or 16,062 less than in 1840. Of potatoes, it is estimated that about two and a half million bushels are produced annually.

The cultivation of cranberries is becoming an important branch of agriculture, more than 100,000 bushels having been gathered during the past season.

The number of acres of woodland in 1850 was 896,450, or 166,658 more than in 1840, showing an annual increase of near 17,000 acres. This is a remarkable fact when taken in connection with the increase of population throughout the State.

The improvement in breeding stocks continues to be very marked. The sheep brought to Smithfield market now average 80 lbs., and the neat cattle average over 800 lbs. In 1850 there were 152,911 cows in the State three years old and upward; about 50,000 oxen four years old and upward; 76,703 steers and heifers over one year, and 74,060 horses, all showing a considerable increase except heifers and steers.

The number of sheep in Massachusetts in 1840 was 343,390, in 1850 it was 179,428. The competition of the Western States has been a chief cause in producing this decrease. The merino sheep seems to be most esteemed in this State.

The total amount of the property of the State Agricultural Society is now \$109,911. During the past year there was expended in premiums and gratuities, which were awarded by the various agricultural societies, \$8,617.

EXTENT OF THE DOMAIN OF THE UNITED STATES.

The following report of the Commissioner of the Land Office, made to the Secretary of the Interior, and submitted to the House of Representatives on the 21st of March, 1854, by the President, in obedience to a resolution of that body, explains a material error as to the prevalent estimate of the extent of the public domain. The letter of the Commissioner is as follows:—

GENERAL LAND OFFICE, March 15, 1854.

SIR:—In compliance with the resolution of the House of Representatives, received in your letter of 24th ult., which resolution is as follows, viz.:—

Resolved, That the President of the United States be requested to cause to be prepared, for the use of this House, tabular statements exhibiting—

First. The area of each State and Territory, expressed in square miles and in acres;

Second. The extent of public domain now remaining in each State and Territory, expressed in acres;

Third. The extent of public domain alienated by the government of the United States in each State and Territory, distinguishing between that sold for a valuable consideration and that given, granted, ceded, or conveyed for the purposes of education, public buildings, internal improvements, and miscellaneous objects;—

I have the honor to transmit herewith a statement containing the information called for:—

By the former statements of this office, the whole surface of the public domain is made to cover	Acres. 1,612,184,919
By the statement now furnished.....	1,391,480,320

Making difference.....	220,704,599
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This discrepancy is explained by the fact that Oregon, the proposed Nebraska, and the Indian Territories, are set down in the former statement as containing.....	764,197,760
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Which was in accordance with an estimate of the public domain west of the Mississippi River, made many years since on the most correct maps then in existence, reduced from time to time by deducting the estimated surfaces of the organized Territories; but by re-estimating the surface according to the improved maps of the day, and the new divisions thereof by the recent legislation of Congress and the bills now pending before that body, it is found, as now stated, to cover only.....	543,493,120
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Leaving difference	220,704,440
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From which deduct a slight error in the old statement, made in reducing the miles to acres for the States of Illinois and Alabama ...	41
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Leaves difference, as above.....	220,704,599
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With great respect, your obedient servant,

JOHN WILSON, Commissioner.

Hon. R. McCLELLAND, Secretary of the Interior.

PRINCIPAL PRODUCTIONS OF JAVA.

COMPARATIVE STATEMENT OF THE CROPS OF 1850, 1851, AND 1852, MADE FROM OFFICIAL SOURCES.

	1852.	1851.	1850.
	Total Crop.	Total Crop.	Total Crop.
Coffee	983,479	1,148,937	1,024,562 piculs.
Sugar	1,672,676	1,589,566	1,438,299 piculs.
Indigo ...	1,060,116	874,743	796,956 lbs.

125 lbs., Dutch — 136 lbs., English — 1 Picul.

JOURNAL OF MINING AND MANUFACTURES.

LAKE SUPERIOR COPPER MINING STOCKS.

We give below a statement of thirty-four companies, showing the number of shares, amount paid in on each share, par value, present prices, and value of mines.

The Detroit *Advertiser*, from which we derive this statement, indorses it as being made up by a person well acquainted with the subject, and as very nearly correct.

	No of Shares.	Amount paid in	Par Value.	Present Prices.	Value of Mine.
Boston & Pittsburgh.....	6,000	18½	\$111,000	145	\$870,000
Minnesota	8,000	22	66,000	175	525,000
Copper Falls.....	10,000	18	180,000	61	610,000
Northwest.....	10,000	15	150,000	25	250,000
North American.....	10,000	17	170,000	75	750,000
Northwestern	10,000	18	180,000	20	200,000
Norwich.....	20,000	5	100,000	12	240,000
Forest.....	10,000	13	130,000	15	150,000
Dana.....	20,000	1½	35,000	2½	50,000
Toltec.....	20,000	4	80,000	12½	250,000
Douglas Houghton.....	10,000	5	50,000	8	800,000
Phoenix	10,000	7	70,000	10	100,000
Winthrop.....	20,000	1½	25,000	2½	50,000
Iron City.....	10,000	2½	25,000	8	80,000
National.....	10,000	3	30,000	32	320,000
Ohio Trap Rock.....	6,000	12	72,000	29	174,000
Windsor.....	20,000	2	40,000	5	100,000
Flint Steel.....	20,000	1½	30,000	6	120,000
Isle Royale	12,000	3	36,000	21	252,000
Nebraska.....	20,000	½	10,000	3½	70,000
Portage.....	20,000	1½	30,000	14	280,000
Algolah.....	20,000	1½	30,000	4½	90,000
Ripley.....	40,000	8	120,000	4	160,000
Star.....	10,000	2	20,000	7	70,000
Montezuma	20,000	½	10,000	3½	70,000
Manitou.....	20,000	½	10,000	2	40,000
Meadow.....	20,000	1	20,000	4	80,000
Clark.....	20,000	1	20,000	10	200,000
Glen.....	20,000	1	20,000	2	40,000
Rockland.....	20,000	1	20,000	12	240,000
Shawmut	20,000	1	20,000	2	40,000
Albion.....	40,000	5	200,000	7	280,000
Webster.....	40,000	2	80,000	2½	90,000
Fulton	100,000	1	100,000	1½	162,000
Total.....			\$2,240,000		\$7,032,000

IMPROVEMENT IN COTTON GIN SAWS.

J. H. Watson, of Palmyra, Ga., has applied for a patent on cotton gin saws. The saws now in common use for cotton gins have the spaces between the teeth made with acute angular bottoms, which is the cause of much cotton being cut or *napped*, and drawn or twisted into kinks. They are also the cause of considerable difficulty in stripping or clearing the saws by the brushes. The object of this improvement is to obviate the above evils; the spaces therefore between the teeth of the improved saws are made with wide bottoms either round or square—the round are preferred. This improvement obviates the napping of the cotton, allows it to be easier blown off from the saws by the brushes, and gins it faster and better.

PRODUCTION OF SALT IN THE UNITED STATES.

In compliance with a resolution adopted by the House of Representatives on the 14th of December 1853, the Secretary of the Treasury transmitted to that body on the 30th of January, 1854, a report, from which we make up the following interesting statistics on the number of salt manufactories, the amount of capital invested in them, and other valuable information.

It appears from the report made by the Superintendent of the Census, that the whole number of salt manufactories in the United States, whose annual product is \$500 or upwards in value, is 339. They are distributed among the States as follows:—

	Estab- lish- ments.	Capital invested.	Av. No. of hands.	Av. yearly wages paid.	Quantity produced. Bushels.	Value of pro- duct per annum.
Maine.....	3	\$3,100	4	\$1,080	\$9,700
Massachusetts.....	9	40,400	35	9,180	93,850
Connecticut.....	1	4,000	2	504	40,000	5,600
New York.....	192	819,950	873	299,376	998,316
Pennsylvania.....	47	168,860	219	519,100	206,796
Virginia.....	40	1,269,900	1,297	324,900	3,479,890	700,466
Florida.....	1	19,000	8	1,728	6,000
Texas.....	2	3,475	16	2,352	8,000	5,900
Ohio.....	32	188,760	167	42,036	550,350	132,293
Kentucky.....	12	128,460	162	17,828	246,500	67,825
Illinois.....	1	2,500	3	720	20,000	6,000

The same report gives the quantity and value of salt imported from 1847 to 1853, and the duties which accrued thereon, as follows:—

Years ending—	Bushels.	Foreign cost.	Gross duties.
June 30, 1847.....	7,235,508	\$393,502	\$535,280 20
1848.....	8,969,604	1,042,502	208,500 40
1849.....	11,622,163	1,438,981	287,796 20
1850.....	11,224,185	1,237,186	247,437 20
1851.....	8,681,176	1,647,890	209,578 00
1852.....	10,116,080	1,112,137	222,427 40
1853.....	10,066,981	1,059,432	211,886 40
Total	67,915,697	7,831,630	1,922,905 80

The average foreign cost was 11.53 cents per bushel. Under the tariff law of 1842, salt paid a duty of 20 cents per bushel. To show the difference of the operation of that law and the act of 1846, the following statement is useful:—

From July 1 to December 1, 1846, the quantity imported was.....bush.	1,993,112
Its value	\$210,213 00
And the duties thereon, under the law of 1842, were.....	399,622 40
From Dec. 1, 1846, to June 30, 1847, the quantity imported was..bush.	5,242,396
Its value	\$683,289 00
The duties on it, under the law of 1846, were.....	136,657 80

MACHINE FOR SOFTENING FLAX.

Robert Boyack, of Poughkeepsie, New York, has invented an improved machine for softening flax. The improvements consist in having a vertical reciprocating plate, with a slot through it, which works between two pairs of fluted rollers. The flax to be operated upon and softened passes from a feed trough, between one pair of the fluted rollers and through the slot in the reciprocating plate, and from thence through the other pair of fluted rollers. The reciprocating plate subjects the flax to a rubbing, frictional action, which renders it soft and pliable, without injury to its fiber. Measures have been taken to secure a patent.

CONSUMPTION OF COAL IN THE UNITED STATES.

The following statistics from the Pottsville *Mining Journal* are of deep interest to all those who use coal as fuel for manufacturing purposes or domestic use:—

The *Journal* says: "The consumption of coal does not increase as rapidly as was supposed. In 1852 the increase was less than 13 per cent, and left a surplus in the market. In 1853 the increased supply was less than 9 per cent from all sources. To this, of course, is to be attributed the high price of coal during the latter part of the year; but taking the average over 12 per cent it will reach it. We see no good reason to believe that this average per centage in the demand is likely to be exceeded the present year, which would require an increase in the supply of about 623,000 tons in 1854, from all sources, to keep the market healthy.

The increased supply can easily be furnished by the different regions, provided dealers and customers will come forward and take coal early in the spring.

The following is a summary of operations in Schuylkill County:—

Total number of collieries.....	113
Red ash collieries.....	58
White ash collieries.....	55
Number of operators.....	82
Employed at collieries.....	9,792
Miners' houses out of towns.....	2,756
Whole capital invested in these collieries.....	\$3,462,000
By individual operators, about.....	2,600,000
Thickest vein worked at Heckscherville.....	80
Smallest.....	2

All the coal lands now worked in Schuylkill County are owned by six corporations, and about sixty individuals. About twenty-five of the owners reside in Schuylkill County, and the balance abroad. The coal rent will average about 30c. a ton. The product of 1853, in Schuylkill County was 2,551,603 tons. This would give an income of \$765,480 to the landholders, in the shape of rents for the year.

THE NEW JERSEY ZINC COMPANY.

The following extract from the last annual report of the New Jersey Zinc Company, furnishes a summary statement of the production of the dry white oxide of zinc during the years 1852 and 1853, from which it appears "That the total production of 1852 was 2,425,506 lbs., and that of the year 1853, 4,043,415 lbs., being an increase of 70 per cent upon the preceding year, and that the production during the latter half of the year 1853 was increased nearly eighty per cent upon that of the first six months.

During the end of September and beginning of October, the works were stopped to make the necessary connections between the new engine, machinery, and furnaces, which accounts for the comparatively small production during that period, but at the same time the important results of the extension of the works is most satisfactorily illustrated by the very largely increased production during the month of November, which was more than double of the monthly average of the entire year.

The works are now regularly producing at the same rate, over 150,000 lbs. per week, and there is no reason to doubt that the production of the year 1854 will amount to eight millions of pounds, being the double of 1853, and nearly fourfold that of the year 1852. A favorable feature of this large increase of production, is the fact that the general expenses of the company remain the same as before, and amount, consequently, to a greatly reduced per centage upon the enlarged production. Another gratifying circumstance is, that whilst in the year 1852 the proportion of the 2d and 3d qualities of paint was fifteen and one-half per cent upon the whole production, it amounted to only five and one half per cent during the year 1853; in fact, so much is the process of manufacture improved, that it has been deemed advisable to strike the No. 3 entirely off the list of manufacture.

The report exhibits the financial condition of the company on December 1st, 1853, from which it appears that the business yielded during the year ending November 30th, 1853, a net profit of \$90,592 16.

It also shows the present surplus of assets over liabilities, exclusive of the 10,111 shares of reserved stock, to be \$49,258 10, consisting of bills receivable running to maturity, and manufactured stock and materials on hand, valued at cash prices.

BAGGING FOR MERCHANDISE.

The following communication, coming, says the *New Orleans Delta*, from a well-informed source, will be of interest to many of our readers:—

The stoppage of factories in the West where Kentucky bagging is made, consequent upon the advanced value of hemp—putting it beyond the owner's power to produce the article at present prices—renders it a matter of grave consideration to cotton planters whether they can procure a sufficiency of covering to bale their next crop.

Advices from Boston report that a speculative demand from England existed for India bagging, and prices had advanced to 12½ cents per yard, with but few sellers at that price. The shipments from Calcutta were small—only 1,200 bales known to be on their way to this country. Shipments made subsequent thereto could not arrive before six months.

The stock in Boston is estimated to be.....	bales.	15,000
" New Orleans.....		5,000
" Charleston and Savannah.....		1,000
On the way from Calcutta		1,200
Total.....		22,000

Or 8,325,000 yards—only sufficient to cover 1,400,000 bales of cotton.

In Charleston and Savannah, India bagging is the only description used, and estimating their proportion of the next crop at 800,000, only sufficient to cover 600,000 would be left for New Orleans and Mobile.

The stock of Kentucky bagging here and in the West is estimated at 40,000 bales, sufficient to cover only 650,000 bales of cotton leaving a deficiency of the quantity requisite for 950,000, if we calculate that the next crop will reach 3,000,000 bales. The crop may possibly exceed these figures, but there may be some stock of bagging in the country to make up for such an excess.

Kentucky bagging is now selling at 13 cents. At the present value of hemp it cannot be manufactured under 14 cents; the sooner, therefore, it grows to a remunerating price, which will enable the manufacturers in Kentucky to commence again, the less will those who put off supplying themselves to a late period have to pay for what they may require.

METHOD OF TOUGHENING GOLD.

Wolf proposes, in the "Practical Hand-Book for Jewelers," to fuse the brittle gold in a new crucible, and when melted, to throw in one or two pieces of sulphur of the size of a pea, to shake the crucible a little with the tongs, and to cast it rapidly into a heated mold. He also proposes to render small pieces malleable by coating them with powdered borax, and heating them in the blowpipe flame until the surface commences fusion.

Both of these methods are resorted to at the United States Mint, but the choice of either depends upon the nature of the accompanying metals that give the gold its brittle character. When there is a quantity of iron present, the gold is fused with a mixture of sulphur, potash, and soda, which will remove it by making the very fusible mixture of sulphurets of iron and alkali. If tin, arsenic, or antimony be present, a good flux is a mixture of borax, soda, and saltpeter, the last for oxydizing the foreign metals into their respective acids, the soda to give base to those acids, and the borax to collect the slag. In both these cases, a sand or clay crucible is preferable to a black-lead pot, in which last the graphite acts reducingly. Where lead is present this process may partially effect its removal; but it is more completely effected during quartenation and by washing the fine gold thoroughly with hot water, after extracting the silver by nitric acid. Another method of removing lead would be to fuse the gold with a little saltpeter, borax, and silica, whereby a fusible slag of oxide of lead would result, and might be skimmed from the surface of the gold. Palladium and platinum, not unfrequently present in California gold, are also removed by the nitric acid in parting silver from gold. Grains of iridosmin have been observed in California gold, in distinct particles, even after three or more fusions, and seem to have no tendency whatever to enter into an alloy; but, whilst casting such gold, these particles collect at the bottom of the pot, from their greater specific gravity, and, by remelting in a small crucible and carefully casting, they may be obtained mixed with a small quantity of gold. The latter is dissolved by nitromuriatic acid, and the iridosmin obtained pure.

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

WHARVES AND WHARFAGE AT THE PORT OF NEW YORK.

The corporation of the city of New York, according to the statement of Controller Flagg, has an interest in bulkheads, wharves, and piers estimated to be worth \$3,250,000. Of this amount, the total valuation on the East River is estimated at \$1,829,000, and on the North River \$1,429,000, showing a total valuation of \$3,258,000. Now, the gross receipts for rents of wharves and piers, Mr. Flagg thinks, should be, at the rate of 8 per cent, equal, on the capital invested, to \$260,000. The actual receipts for 1853 were only \$127,000; from which deduct \$37,000 expended for repairs, and we have \$90,000 as the net proceeds—less than 3 per cent on the estimated value of the piers and slips belonging to the city.

The controller suggests such an increase of the rates of wharfage as will secure a fair remuneration for this description of property, under the belief that the character of New York, as a desirable shipping port, will be benefited instead of injured. "We have," says Mr. Flagg, "adhered to low rates of wharfage to keep up the name of the cheapest port on the continent, until we have literally run the shipping into the mud."

The following statement of the rates of wharfage in several ports of the Union, as compared with the port of New York, is given by Mr. Flagg, the controller, in the appendix to his report. It illustrates his position in regard to the low rate of wharfage in New York, and contains facts that will be new to many:—

RATES OF WHARFAGE IN THE PRINCIPAL PORTS OF THE UNION.

The rates of wharfage on employed vessels in the city of New York is but a small fraction on the average of what is charged in nearly every other port in the Union, and also in foreign ports, either on the vessels or cargo, or on both. A few cases out of a multitude will serve to illustrate this subject and set it in a clear light, and also tend to show the inadequate compensation owners of piers in the city of New York now receive.

The sloop *Tecumseh*, of Rhode Island, 70 tons register, and carries 700 barrels, discharged her cargo on pier No. 11 North River, and paid 62½ cents for one day's wharfage, the legal rate. For the privilege of discharging a similar cargo on one of the piers in Rhode Island, she paid the regular wharf-tax of two cents per barrel, or \$14 for the cargo.

The ship *Vicksburgh*, of New York, 468 tons register, and carries 1,700 bales cotton, discharged her whole cargo on pier No. 4 North River in 2½ days, using horse-power for the purpose. To remove this cotton, a horse and cart were required to come on the pier four hundred times, four large or five small bales constituting a load. For this entire use of the pier she paid three days' wharfage, at \$1 62½ per day, or \$4 87½ in all, being the legal rate. In Baltimore she would be required to pay about fifty dollars, in Boston sixty-eight, in Charleston, Mobile, or New Orleans, about the same as in Boston.

The coal-barge *Anthracite*, of Philadelphia, 49 tons register, discharged her whole cargo of 70 tons of coal on pier No. 4, North River, in ten hours, by horse-power, using blocks, one of which was screwed into the pier, and also tackle for the purpose. To discharge this cargo, the horse used was required to traverse a distance of seventy feet each time an iron tub with coal was raised from the barge to the cart; and as nine tubs of coal make a ton and fill the cart, the horse therefore traversed on the surface of the pier, which was covered with pine plank, in drawing and returning, eighteen times to each ton, over a space of seventy feet, or 830 times drawing and 830 times returning, to discharge her cargo of seventy tons of coal. In addition to this, a horse and cart were required to come on the pier seventy times to remove the coal. For this whole use of the pier she paid one day's wharfage, fifty cents, being the legal rate.

In Boston she would have to pay twenty-five cents per ton, or \$17 25 in all, for the privilege of discharging a similar cargo. The harbor master received from the captain of this barge, for his own use and benefit, the legal fee of two dollars, for simply directing him to take his barge into her berth.

The owners of steamboat lines and tow-boats now rent a large number of piers in the city of New York, for their exclusive use, for which they pay nearly twice as much as these piers would produce if thrown open to all vessels, and the legal rate of wharfage only exacted.

All vessels pay wharfage according to their registered tonnage at the custom house, which, from some erroneous system used in the measurement, does not give their true burden. Most vessels will carry from one-third to one-half more tons, of either measurement or heavy goods, than they register at the custom house. The law now in being designed that they should pay according to their actual burden, but it has been found impracticable to carry it out.

THE BRITISH ACT ON THE COASTING TRADE.

The act of the British Parliament to admit foreign ships to the coasting trade, received the royal assent in April, 1854, and has been printed.

It repeals the 152d and 191st sections of the 16th and 17th of Victoria, c. 107, and enables the Queen to exercise retaliatory powers, as in the 324th and two following sections of the same act. This act destroys "the last rag of protection," as stated, providing by the second clause that every foreign ship which, after the passing of the act, is employed for carrying goods or passengers coastwise from one part of the United Kingdom to another, or from the Channel Islands to the United Kingdom, or from the United Kingdom to any of the said islands, or from any of them to any other of them, or from any part to any other part, "shall be subject, as to stores for the use of the crew, and in all other respects, to the same laws, rules and regulations, to which British ships when so employed are now subject." Further, by the 3d section it is enacted that foreign ships employed in the coasting trade shall not be subject to higher rates than British ships, and with respect to passengers it is stated to be expedient to provide for the safety of passenger steamers; and it is enacted by the concluding provision that every foreign steam vessel carrying passengers from one place to another on the coast of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland and the Channel Islands, shall be subject to the provisions of the steam navigation act, 1851. The coasting trade is now thrown open to foreign vessels in the same manner as British ships.

THE SHIP-MASTERS OF MAINE.

The *State of Maine* says, the business of a ship-master has become a leading profession in Maine. This gallant class of men, always most respectable, has rapidly grown into distinction and importance within the last few years. In 1850, Maine had 928 clergymen, 659 physicians, and 560 lawyers—and these professions are all crowded. The average compensation of the clergy of Maine will not exceed \$40 per month, and that of the physicians and lawyers will not exceed, on an average, \$50 per month, or \$600 a year.

Our ship-masters are now far better paid than any class of men in the State. In 1853, Maine put to sea 365 vessels of all descriptions—nearly one-half of them ships of the larger class. Each of these vessels has to be supplied with a master—calling, at least, 300 young men in a single year from Maine into active and profitable employment—requiring as high a degree of practical sagacity, physical energy, and business talent as is demanded in any other trade or profession among us. We have known young men, graduates of college and educated to the bar, leave that profession to take charge of vessels, and retire with a competency in early life, with far better health and more knowledge of the world than they could have obtained in their former pursuit.

So great is the demand for ship-masters, and so rapid is promotion, that a much younger class of men reach the command than formerly. Our ship-masters very often own a share in the ship, and in addition to the ordinary compensation to the master, share a portion of the profits of the voyage. By such a union of capital and skill, our shipping is materially enhanced in value.

THE BUSINESS OF NEW YORK AND BOSTON.

Mr. HASKELL, the present editor of the *Boston Transcript*, has had some experience as a merchant. He writes thus of two of the leading commercial cities of the Union:—

In view of the great superiority of New York, it may be asked, Is she not destined to finally swallow up the trade of Boston? To which we answer, that if the trade of this city was mainly foreign Commerce, there might be some danger of this result. But such is not the fact. The foreign trade of Boston sinks into insignificance when compared with its domestic Commerce. It was estimated, a few years since, at two hundred million, and now must be much more, and probably in amount would approach two hundred and fifty to three hundred million. It is this vast trade in our domestic productions that makes Boston what she is, and this portion of our business is increasing at an unprecedented rate. And we cannot think that there is much danger of decline in a city that shows an increase of nearly \$20,000,000 in taxable property in one year, a gain of ten per cent a year in tonnage, and a like increase in the amount of foreign imports. The increase of business at Boston is probably rapid enough to be healthy and sound; while the great inflation of the business at New York, the tremendous extravagance and speculation incident thereto, may result, at no very distant period, in a general crash, which will spread ruin all around. Then Boston, being under snug sail, will be all the better off for not being so inflated. We think that this consideration should comfort our citizens when they see the vast strides of New York in business, and warn them, while they are urgent for the advancement of their city, to avoid that recklessness and wildness of speculation which must prove disastrous in the end.

EXTRAVAGANT EXPENDITURES: A HINT TO MERCHANTS.

One of the most mischievous phrases in which a rotten morality, says a newspaper paragraph—a radically false and vicious public sentiment, disguise themselves, is that which characterizes certain individuals as destitute of financial capacity. "A kind, amiable, generous, good sort of man," so runs the varnish, "but utterly unqualified for the management of his own finances, a mere child in everything relating to money," &c.,—meaning that, with an income of £300 a year, he persisted in spending £800; or, with an income of £500, he regularly spent £1,000, according to his ability to run in debt, or the credulity of others in trusting him. The world is full of people who can't imagine why they don't prosper like their neighbors, when the real obstacle is in their own extravagance and heedless ostentation. The young clerk marries and takes a house, which he proceeds to furnish quite as expensively as he can afford; and then his wife, instead of taking to helping him to earn a livelihood by doing her own work, must have a hired servant to help her to spend his limited earnings. Ten years afterward you will find him struggling on under a double load of debts and children, wondering why the luck was always against him, while his friends regret his "unhappy destitution of financial ability." Had they from the first been frank and honest, he need not have been so unlucky. Through every grade of society this vice of inordinate expenditure insinuates itself. Let a man have a genius for spending, and whether his income is a guinea a day or a guinea a minute, it is equally certain to prove inadequate. If dining, wining, cigarring, and party-giving wont help him through it, building, gaming, and speculation will be sure to.

MERCANTILE HONOR.

We are pleased to learn that the Hon. Winslow S. Pierce, who went from Illinois to California several years since, and who, by industry and economy—notwithstanding losses by fires at two or three different times, which swept away nearly all his earnings—having secured a small amount of the valuable dust of the country, has returned and honorably paid both principal and interest of debts contracted in this city eight or nine years ago, which, by reason of misfortunes in business, he has been before entirely unable to meet. We are happy to record this instance of mercantile integrity, and wish, for the honor of human nature, that such occurrences were not so rare.

—*Journal*.

EXECUTION OF A BANKRUPT IN HAMBURGH.

The following account of an occurrence which took place in Hamburgh is copied from a recent number of the *London Dispatch*. How would such a course answer in any of our commercial cities! The account says:—

At noon, just as the Exchange—crowded with merchants—presented its busiest aspect, two drummers in the civic uniform came up and rolled their drums for the space of ten minutes, causing a great commotion both within and out of the Bourse. While this was going on, workmen were seen over the principal gateway of the building elevating a black board, on which was painted in white letters the name of a merchant of the city who had lately suspended payment and absconded with all his assets. When the name had been fairly set up, a bell called the “shand glocke,” or shame bell, only rung on such occasions, was sounded for two hours from a tower of the Bourse. This penalty of disgrace, called the “execution of a fraudulent bankrupt,” is ordained by a law which can be traced to the 14th century, when the Hanseatic league was at the height of its greatness. At that period, however, the bankrupt’s patent of citizenship and his certificate as a merchant, were also burnt by the hangman.

COMMERCIAL IMPORTANCE OF THE ONION.

The onion is worthy of notice as an extensive article of consumption in this country. It is largely cultivated at home, and is imported, to the extent of seven or eight hundred tons a year, from Spain and Portugal. But it rises in importance when we consider that in these latter countries it forms one of the common and universal supports of life. It is interesting, therefore, to know that, in addition to the peculiar flavor which first recommends it, the onion is remarkably nutritious. According to my analyses, the dried onion-root contains from twenty-five to thirty per cent. of gluten. It ranks in this respect with the nutritious pea and the *gram* of the East. It is not merely as a relish, therefore, that the wayfaring Spaniard eats his onion with his humble crust of bread, as he sits by the refreshing spring; it is because experience has long proved that, like the cheese of the English laborer, it helps to sustain his strength also, and adds, beyond what its bulk would suggest, to the amount of nourishment which his simple meal supplies.—*The Chemistry of Common Life*.

THE ARTICLE OF COMMERCE, QUININE.

This famous medicine, says the *Commercial Bulletin*, with which the people of New Orleans have become so well acquainted, has been taken into consideration by the Secretary of the Treasury, in his proposed revision of the tariff. At one time it was classed in the list of free articles, but subsequently it was excluded, and the proposition is now to increase the duty upon it. Heretofore this drug, so universally used, was subject to a duty of 20 per cent—the proposed scheme would raise it to 25 per cent. It is computed that about 300,000 ounces are consumed annually in the United States; but if it is used elsewhere in anything like the ratio it was used in this city last summer, the consumption will greatly exceed that quantity. There are two manufactories of the article in this country, and they have grown rich at the business. The domestic article is far inferior to the imported drug.

EFFECTS OF THE EARLY CLOSING MOVEMENT IN LONDON.

The early closing movement in London has given rise to a change in the customs of business in a different direction. The Bank of England has given notice that from the 1st of March the time of opening will be 10 o’clock, one hour later than formerly. The result of this measure, it is stated in London journals, will be twofold: it will enable the senior employees to live further out of town than they now do, or will take them from their families at a more convenient hour; and it will enable the juniors to partake of the advantages which hitherto have been only afforded to those above them. The junior clerk will now be able to live three or four miles out of London, and walk to his business in the morning—a change by which he will gain both air and exercise, and, as their consequences, health. In another point of view the benefit will be great; the public will have their business transacted within a smaller space of time.

THE BOOK TRADE.

- 1.—*Merrimac, or Life at the Loom.* A Tale by DAY KELLOGG LEE, author of "Summerfield, or Life on a Farm," and 'The Master Builder, or Life at a Trade.' 12mo., pp. 353. New York: Redfield.

This volume is in the form of an auto-biography. The principal character relates her own experience. She belonged to a family in Salem, whose home was early broken up, by the loss of property and death of her parents. The second one laid in Massachusetts. After relating the events of her childhood, and the efforts put forth to gain her own livelihood, she gives her history as one of the operatives in the Mills at Merrimac. Her life at the loom is very pleasantly set forth, presenting to the reader the advantages and disadvantages resulting from the circumstances which surround the factory girl. The book gives an insight into the life of this portion of the community, pointing out the temptations which allure the unwise and unsuspecting, and showing the success which attends those, however exposed, whose characters are based on high moral principle. The narrative is well told. Many incidents connected with her own family, and the history of others, add to the interest of the book, and make it acceptable to the reader.

- 2.—*The Poetical Works of William H. C. Hosmer.* 2 vols., 12mo., pp. 374 and 376. New York: Redfield.

It is not often that two volumes of poetry, by the same author, issue from the press at once. Most writers of verse are extremely modest in the extent of their publications, and come before the public quite daintily, as if it was a fearful personage to meet face to face. We like the bold, manly courage of Mr. Hosmer, in presenting to us in a compact form the various poetical effusions from his pen, some of which have been so long floating in the columns of the newspaper press. The volumes are such as to give an honorable reputation to any author, more especially in this instance will they increase the flattering reputation their author enjoys as a poet. The contents of the first volume consist of the more lengthy and severe poems of Mr. Hosmer, while the latter comprises occasional poems, historic scenes, martial lyrics, songs and ballads, funeral echoes, sonnets, &c. The versification is easy, flowing, and polished, rich in thought, and possessing many sparkling passages. These volumes must meet with extensive favor from the public.

- 3.—*The Shores of the Black Sea in the Autumn of 1852: With a Voyage down the Volga, and a Tour through the Country of the Don Cossacks.* By LAWRENCE OLIPHANT. From the Third London edition. 12mo., pp. 266. New York: Redfield.

The reader will at once conceive the importance to be attached to this volume, by considering that those provinces of the Black Sea which Russia has appropriated to herself within the last sixty years, compose a territory as extensive as Turkey in Europe, to which they formerly belonged. The shores of the Volga also, through which the author passed, form the granary of the Russian Empire. The narrative conveys very full information relative to the character of the people, the resources of the country, and the power and efficiency, or inefficiency, of the Russian government in that portion of the continent. At this time, when a war which will test all the resources of Russia is so imminent, this volume cannot fail to be read with satisfaction by all who feel an interest in the most momentous affairs of the world.

- 4.—*Classic and Historic Portraits.* By JAMES BRUCE. 12mo., pp. 352. New York: J. S. Redfield.

We find in this book the characteristics of those personages of antiquity, classical and historical, and those of a later period, who in their age and country have made themselves either illustrious or infamous, according to their virtues or vices. The compiler differs in his sketches as far as possible from the oft-told history of their lives, having collected from every source available to him, a description of the personal appearance, manners, and private habits and tastes of those famed on the page of history. The ideas of beauty which have prevailed in different ages and countries are discussed, and references to painting, sculpture, and the kindred arts are introduced, which tend to make the book instructive and interesting.

- 5.—*The Divine Character Vindicated*. A Review of some of the principal features of Rev. Dr. E. BEECHER's recent work, entitled "The Conflict of Ages, or the Great Debate on the Moral Relations of God and Man." By Rev. MOSES BALLOU. 12mo., pp. 412. New York: Redfield.

The author of this volume, in his examination of the work of Dr. E. Beecher, does not come before the public in the light of a mere disputant, desirous chiefly of a theological combat, but as one seeking for the truth on the great point under consideration, and desirous of exposing errors in the work which now takes a foremost position in the investigation. The author entertains those ameliorated views of the Divine Character and relations to man, which are so worthy of one who regards the affections as more noble than the passions, and forgiveness as a higher trait than revenge. His opinions are urged with ability and force, and should be studied by all who have read the other work, or who feel an interest in the general subject.

- 6.—*A Child's History of England*. By CHARLES DICKENS. Vol. 2. 16mo., pp. 307. New York; Harper & Brothers.

This book contains the history of England from the reign of Henry VI., to the revolution of 1688. This, as well as volume one, is finely adapted for the reading of children; it is written in an attractive form, and will lead the young mind to acquire a taste for historical composition, if they have not a natural love of it. "Dickens," with his matchless power of description, certainly possesses the faculty of interesting the young. The characters who lived and flourished within the period of which this book treats, the scenes, which include an account of the Reformation, and the events of the reign of Henry VIII., though so familiar to the general reader, are invested with new interest from the pen of this distinguished author. This history will be a valuable addition to a juvenile library.

- 7.—*Carlington Castle: A Tale of the Jesuits*. By C. G. H., author of "The Curate of Linwood," "Amy Harrington," "Norman Leslie," &c. 12mo., pp. 334. New York: Bunce & Brothers.

This story, the leading events of which, we are told, are true, presents a thrilling picture of the sufferings and trials of one whose tender frame might well have yielded to a frightful accumulation of horrors, had not an abiding faith and an exalted moral courage preserved her through her trials. It is impossible to become acquainted with instances of such lofty fortitude as evinced by the heroine of this book without a thrill of admiration; and it is also impossible to read of the atrocities and cruelties, both physical and mental, that were inflicted upon her, without a feeling of almost vehement indignation.

- 8.—*Spiritual Progress; or Instructions in the Divine Life of the Soul*. From the French of FENELON and MADAME GUYON. Intended for such as are desirous to count all things but loss that they may win Christ. Edited by James W. Metcalf. 12mo., pp. 348. New York: M. W. Dodd.

This work is intended to be simply devotional, and matter of a purely sectarian or controversial character has been, as far as possible, omitted. It contains the *Spiritual Letters* of Fenelon, and a *Short and Easy Method of Prayer* by Madame Guyon; besides "A Concise View of the Way to God, and of the State of Union," by the latter.

- 9.—*January and June*. Being Out-door Thinkings and Fire-side Musings. By BENJ. F. TAYLOR. 12mo., pp. 281. New York: Samuel Hueston.

This book is prettily illustrated. It is filled with sketches on various subjects, some in verse, others in prose. They are the jottings down of thoughts by the way-side and fire-side, gracefully and pleasantly written. A spirit of love and harmony with nature characterizes its pages, which added to their pure and lofty sentiments, renders the book attractive as well as meritorious.

- 10.—*Traces of the Roman and Moor; or Twice trodden Tracks Through Lombardy and the Spains*. By a Bachelor. 12mo., pp. 450. New York: Lamport, Blake-man & Co.

A very pleasant and agreeable book of travel, embracing descriptions of those splendid nations, who, overrunning in their turn both the northern part of Italy and Spain, left such vestiges in these countries as will ever be easily recognized in the "Traces of the Roman and the Moor." The volume is handsomely printed, and has a beautifully engraved view of Seville.

- 11.—*The Life of Harman Blennerhassett*. Comprising an authentic narrative of the Burr Expedition; and containing many additional facts not heretofore published. By WILLIAM H. SAFFORD. 12mo., pp. 289. Cincinnati: Moore, Anderson, Wilstach & Keys.

The author has collected all that was available with regard to the earlier fortunes of Blennerhassett; and the motives which probably induced him to seek a home in the New World. It has been the subject of much comment and curiosity; various conjectures have arisen, both favorable and otherwise, touching his early history. What should have led one of such noble descent and literary attainments to renounce the hereditary honors consequent upon family, for the secluded life of an unpretending Republican? The design of this volume "is to strip the subject of the mysteriousness which ignorance, willful prejudice, or a love of the marvelous, has thrown around it," and to show what he was, and reveal to the reader the acts and character of the man. This the author seems to have done fairly, without screening the faults, or exaggerating the virtues of either Blennerhassett or Burr, with whom the subject of the book was so unfortunately connected. An interesting account of the Burr Expedition is given. The book can be commended, aside from its biography, for the historical interest it affords. It is interesting and instructive.

- 12.—*Gustavus Lindorm*: or "Lead us not into Temptation."—By EMILIE F. CARLEN, author of "One Year of Wedlock," "The Bride of Omberg," etc., with a preface to her American readers, by the Author. From the original Swedish, by Elbert Perce. 12mo., pp. 843. New York: Charles Scribner.

This is another of a series of translations, from the works of a Swedish authoress distinguished for purity of style and sentiment, and rare simplicity in descriptions of home life. Mrs. Carlen is the wife of a Swedish clergyman, is just beginning to be known on this side of the Atlantic. A writer remarks: "At home she is more celebrated than Miss Bremer. Her pictures of domestic life, her portraits of character in the more secluded walks of life—of the fine sensibilities, pure thoughts and lofty emotions of the human heart, and her descriptions of the scenery of her native land—its misty mountains, its green valleys, its winter storms, its radiant summer skies—have won her, deservedly, the high fame she enjoys."

- 13.—*The Barclays of Boston*. By MRS. HARRISON GREY OTIS. 12mo., pp. 419. Boston: Ticknor, Reed & Fields.

"The Barclays of Boston" is written by one familiar with Boston society. The scenes are supposed to be drawn from life. There is much sprightliness and vivacity of style in the story, which shows that the authoress was shrewd in her observations of persons and customs of society. Many of the characters are portrayed with ability, and give the book the interest of a romance; but unlike a skillful romancer, the author leaves the two lovers, Gerald Sanderson and Georgianna Seaton, upon whom the main interest of the reader is turned, in a state of suspense, which is not quite as satisfactory as to have brought them to a happy union. The story, however, displays considerable tact.

- 14.—*Rob of the Bowl*. A Legend of St. Inigoe's. By J. P. KENNEDY, author of "Swallow Barn," "Horse Shoe Robinson," &c. &c. 12mo., pp. 432. New York: G. P. Putnam & Co.

This story refers to a period in the history of Maryland heretofore involved in obscurity. The records connected with the events of that time have long been buried from the public in forgotten repositories. Many of them were lost, crumbled away under the touch of time. Those saved from the wreck by antiquarian research, the author has weaved and founded the materials of a large portion of his story. It is historical, and he endeavors to do justice to the partisans on either side, in that war of intolerance which marked that epoch. It is valuable on account of its historical character, aside from the story, which adds to its interest.

- 15.—*A Manual for Notaries Public*. By BERNARD ROELKEE, A. M., of the Boston Bar. 8vo., pp. 178. New York: G. P. Putnam & Co.

This work is adapted to the use of notaries public and bank officers, and will be found useful to bank customers. It comprises a summary of the law of bills of exchange and of promissory notes, both in Europe and the United States, checks on bankers, sight bills, approved forms of protest and notice of protest, and a great number of legal discussions, with other matters of interest to the great banking interests of the country.

- 16.—*Thesaurus of English Words*. So classified and arranged as to facilitate the expression of ideas, and assist in literary composition. By PETER MARLE ROGET. Revised and Edited, with a list of foreign words defined in English and other additions, by B. SEARS, D. D. 12mo., pp. 468. Boston: Gould & Lincoln.

This work differs from a dictionary in this respect, the words instead of being alphabetically placed are arranged according to the ideas which they express. An ordinary dictionary simply gives the meaning of words, merely the idea the word is intended to convey. The object of this volume is, the idea being given, to find the word or words by which that idea may be most fitly and accurately expressed. The words are classified according to their signification. The work, as the author remarks, is intended to supply, with respect to the English language, a desideratum hitherto unsupplied in any language. It may be made extremely useful and convenient, facilitating the expression of ideas in literary composition, and giving to the English student a power and habit of expressing his thoughts with perspicuity and correctness. The book contains an ample vocabulary, which could be made of great advantage to those who desire and seek for a full command of the English language. To such a one, Roget's "Thesaurus" will be an invaluable manual.

- 17.—*The Lamplighter*. 12mo., pp. 523. Boston: John P. Jewett & Co. Cleveland, Ohio: Jewett, Proctor & Worthington.

This new publication is one of the most interesting romances which has appeared for some time. As an evidence of its popularity, it has already reached its twentieth thousand. It is purported to be written by a lady who is but little known as a writer. The plot of the story is admirably conceived. The reader follows the fortunes of Gerty, the poor homeless child, with intense interest. Her self-sacrifice and devotion to Uncle Irua, (a noble character in the lower walks of life,) and to Blind Emily, her teacher and benefactress, is beautifully portrayed; indeed there is not a character but is well sustained. The story is replete with incidents which surprise and captivate us, though the chief merit of the book is the moral and religious sentiments which pervade it. The effect of kindness in molding the character of children, the power of faith and hope to carry one through the darkest scenes of this earthly pilgrimage, are illustrated in these pages with great beauty and pathos. The unfolding of these sentiments invests some of her characters with an indescribable charm. The book has a good moral influence.

- 18.—*History of the French Protestant Refugees, from the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes to our own Days*. By CHARLES WEISS, Professor of History in the *Lycee Bonaparte*. Translated from the French by WILLIAM HENRY HERBERT. With an American Appendix, by a descendant of the Huguenots. 2 vols., 12mo., pp. 382 and 419. New York: Stringer & Townsend.

This work has received the almost universal commendation of the best and ablest English journals. Blackwood's Edinburgh Magazine devoted a long article to its examination, and bestowed upon it almost unqualified commendation. The author has judiciously, we think, avoided touching even incidentally the religious question excited within the three centuries between the Roman and Reformed Church; neither has he revived the irritating controversy which still separates many of the noblest spirits. The work is replete with interest; and this translation by Mr. Herbert is admitted on all hands to be free from the slightest foreign idiom, and in as pure Saxon-English as if originally composed in that tongue. It is highly commended by such men as Geo. B. Cheever, D. D., the Rev. Drs. Potts, De Witt, Knox, Spring, Boardman, Dowling, Johns, Bacon, and other American clergymen of different denominations.

- 19.—*Annie Grayson; or Life in Washington*. By MRS. LASSELL. 12mo., pp. 345. New York: Bunce & Brothers.

An interesting story, written to warn the young of giving themselves up to fashion, from a love of pleasure and outward display. The scenes portrayed are pictures drawn from life. The author endeavors to show that duplicity and falsehood may seem to prosper; its fruit is bitterness; whilst the practice of virtue is the only sure guide to happiness. The characters of the book are well drawn, the faults of society exposed in such a manner, that it cannot fail to impress the youthful readers of the dangers which beset their path, from pursuing the wrong course, as well as to lead them to appreciate the beauty of early piety, which is so truthfully and attractively presented in the pages of this volume.

- 20.—*A New and Complete Gazetteer of the United States*: Giving a full and comprehensive Review of the present Condition, Industry, and Resources of the American Confederacy; Embracing also important Topographical, Statistical, and Historical Information, from recent and original sources; Together with the Results of the Census of 1850, and Population and Statistics in many cases to 1853. By THOMAS BALDWIN and J. THOMAS, M. D. 8vo., pp. 1365. Philadelphia: Lippincott, Grambo & Co.

This is a new, and to a considerable extent an original work. It embraces a vast amount of information respecting the United States, which has evidently been gathered from authentic sources, with great care and discrimination. Indeed the editors, with a frankness somewhat rare, unhesitatingly acknowledge the various sources through which their information has been obtained, and thus enable us to speak confidently of the high estimation in which this work is entitled to be regarded. We have examined its contents with much care, and can speak in the most explicit terms of its fullness, completeness, and systematic arrangement. In its contents are all the post-offices of the country to a recent date; all the counties, townships, &c., with copious details of their productions, manufactures, Commerce, inhabitants, and national curiosities. Much historical information is added in relation to all the important and memorable places of the country. In a few instances, we notice that places are repeated, but in a work of some thirty thousand names it would be impossible to avoid it. The substantial manner in which the work has been issued is highly creditable, and is such as is worthy of the best Gazetteer of the United States ever published.

- 21.—*The Dietetics of the Soul*. By ERNEST VON FEUCHTERSTEBEN, M. D. pp. 214. New York: C. S. Francis & Co. Boston: Crosby & Nichols.

This treatise is a practical demonstration of the power which the mind, in a healthy state, exercises over the body. Also a knowledge of those means by which the soul is preserved in a state of health in the right exercise of those powers. The book contains twelve chapters, treating upon the general actions of the mind, the imagination, the will, understanding, passions, affections, &c. Appended to the treatise is a diary useful for those who desire self-improvement. It is an evidence of the popularity of the work, that at the time of its translation it had already passed through its seventh edition in Germany. It is valuable as a work of moral philosophy, and may be commended for its originality and usefulness.

- 22.—*Life and Sayings of Mrs. Partington, and others of the Family*. By B. P. SHILLABER. 12mo., pp. 384. New York: J. C. Derby. Boston: Phillips, Sampson & Co. Cincinnati: H. W. Derby.

The contents of this volume are too well known to need much comment—Mrs. Partington requires no introduction; her sayings are well appreciated, and deserve to be collected in the attractive form in which Mr. Shillaber now presents them to the public. We would not have such wise and genial sayings scattered to the four winds. The author is justified in giving them so permanent a home, adorned with the portrait of the good lady. They will afford the reader a fund of amusement. We regard the sayings of Mrs. Partington, (alias Shillaber,) as among the finest things of the kind. The wit is free from vulgarity, and there is a vein of pathos, humor, and benevolence, running through the volume, that will lose nothing by comparison with the happiest productions of the best writers in "Punch."

- 23.—*Life and Adventures of a Country Merchant*. A Narrative of his Exploits at Home, during his Travels, and in the Cities. By J. B. JONES. 12mo., pp. 396. Philadelphia: Lippincott, Grambo & Co.

The title of the book is suggestive of the contents. Mr. Jones is well known among the Western writers as the author of "Wild Western Scenes" and some other works. This volume gives an account of his visits to Eastern cities, his adventures as a merchant, &c. Some of the scenes are very amusing and humorously described. As a picture of mercantile life it is not of much value.

- 24.—*Trials and Confessions of an American Housekeeper*. 12mo., pp. 312. Philadelphia: Lippincott, Grambo & Co.

The scenes of this volume are drawn from life. The author graphically and feelingly describes the trials, perplexities, and incidents of housekeeping, written from her own experience. There is much that is grave and instructive, as well as agreeable and amusing. It is written in a spirited style, full of incident, and is well worth reading.

25.—*Mysteries of Bee Keeping Explained: Being a Complete Analysis of the whole Subject—consisting of the Natural History of Bees; Directions for obtaining the greatest amount of pure surplus Honey with the least possible Expense; Remedies for Losses given, and the Science of "Luck" fully illustrated; the result of more than Twenty Years' Experience in extensive Apiaries.* By M. QUIMBY. 12mo., pp. 376. New York: O. M. Saxton.

A comprehensive and excellent treatise from the pen of a practical bee keeper. His knowledge is the result of experience, in devoting a long period of his life to the study of the nature and habits of bees. The author gives many interesting facts connected with natural history, and a great deal of useful information regarding the habits and instincts of this insect. Those engaged in bee keeping will find this an invaluable manual, and especially those who desire the greatest possible advantage. Mr. Quimby writes, had he been possessed of this information twenty years ago, he might have realized hundreds of dollars. His course has been, first to suffer a loss, and then find out a remedy or preventive—from which the reader may be exempt.

26.—*Fern Leaves, from Fanny's Portfolio.* With Original Designs by Fred. M. Coffin. 12mo., pp. 400. New York. J. C. Derby. Auburn and Buffalo: Miller, Orton & Mulligan.

Filled with a variety of articles, some sad, others gay. Written in a captivating, sprightly manner, blended with humor and pathos, and marked by many true and useful hints. It is full of incidents, some very touchingly written. The success of "Little Ferns, for Fanny's Little Friends," by the same author, will make way for the public appreciation of this no less meritorious volume. It may be commended for its strong common-sense ideas, yet embellished with much grace and beauty. The reader will be richly entertained by a perusal.

27.—*Margaret; or Prejudice at Home, and its Victims.* 12mo., pp. 362. New York: Stringer & Townsend.

This volume appears in the form of an autobiography. Margaret gives an account of twelve years of her life. The first fifteen were passed in obscurity—her parentage unknown. The scenes are laid in England and France. She relates the history of her own life, seeks out her origin, and portrays the trials and difficulties which marked her course. The evil effects of prejudice are shown, and the sorrows of the down-trodden and oppressed in her own land are described. The story has a good moral tendency, and is calculated to do good as well as to entertain.

28.—"*Gleason's Pictorial*" has reached its 6th volume, and has enjoyed an unprecedented success from the first, having gradually reached the limit of its own power of multiplication in a weekly issue of over one hundred thousand copies. *The Flag of Our Union* has been still more productive, as it has a circulation of seventy-three thousand without the expense of such copious illustrations as the *Pictorial*. Frederic Gleason, the proprietor, has realized a fortune by remarkable tact as well as industry, and is at present on a European tour preparing for the further improvement of his *Pictorial*. Two features of his publications deserve the commendation of all. One is, that while we might desire more instruction and less amusement, more science or history and less fiction in his pages, he has never catered to a vitiated taste. M. M. Ballou (the editor) has never given currency to vulgar jokes, or stories of doubtful tendency. A second thing is, that it does one's heart good to see mechanics so delightfully situated—his one hundred and fifty printers, engravers, binders, &c., are lodged like princes; and one who visits Boston cannot do a better thing than look in upon what was once a stately museum, then a hotel of great pretensions, and now a hive of unceasing, ever-cheerful, well-rewarded industry. Mr. Ballou, the son of the celebrated "Father Ballou," a still younger man than Mr. G., takes pleasure in showing the mammoth establishment to intelligent strangers, and his energy, sagacity, and *bon-homme* have contributed immensely to make this one of the most successful literary enterprises in the world. It is hardly necessary to add, that his illustrated sheet circulates abroad as well as over the whole United States, and that in each of the large European capitals he has a large number of regular subscribers. To improve the quality of the paper used for his engravings is the next step of advance. We shall then have an American paper fully equal to the *London Illustrated News*, and at half the price.

HUNT'S

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HUNT'S MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE

AND COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

JUNE, 1854.

Art. I.—THE CAMEL AND ITS COMMERCIAL VALUE.*

THE camel has been associated in all past historical ages with the Commerce and civilization of mankind. The record of its services commences with the patriarchal epoch, and its earliest performances are recorded in Genesis, the earliest of books. The Commerce of Central and Eastern Asia—from the Mediterranean to the mouth of the Amour, and from Northern Tary to the confines of China and the coast of the Persian Gulf; and of Africa—from the Mediterranean to the Equatorial line, and from the Red Sea to the Atlantic Ocean—is dependent for its existence upon this animal. To the advantages which would attend its introduction into the Western deserts and plains of this continent, the attention of the public has of late been somewhat drawn. Our predecessors in the vast territories recently acquired by us were content with the horse which was introduced by their forefathers, the *Conquistadores*. The American conqueror, aiming to accomplish his mission of civilization by Commerce and its train of consequences, will introduce the camel, and thus fix the second great epoch in the history of the domestication of animals useful to man on this continent. Symptoms of this are manifesting themselves in various quarters. Before the close of the past year, the acclimation of the camel was submitted to the consideration of Congress by one of the principal departments of the government, whose chief—a gentleman of great capacity and very comprehensive mind—earnestly and forcibly recommended the introduction of the animal; and still later, we find the Legislature of the State of New York giving its aid and sanction to the same project, by the passage of a liberal and favorable act of incorporation of the “American Camel Company.” Mr. Erastus Brooks, one of the representatives of this city in the Senate of the State, well informed on the subject of commercial history, and whose

* Secretary of War's Report, Dec. 1, 1853. Act of the New York Legislature to incorporate the American Camel Company, April 15, 1854.

active intelligence enabled him to appreciate the advantages of camel transportation, introduced the bill, and under his auspices it became a law.

As the present time, therefore, would seem to be a juncture at which an outline of the natural history of the camel may gratify legitimate curiosity and interest, some pains have been taken to collect, from numerous sources, the following facts, showing very conclusively that the camel is the animal of all others best adapted for facilitating and extending commercial intercourse over the deserts and plains intervening between the Mississippi and Pacific Ocean.

NATURAL HISTORY OF THE CAMEL.

General Characteristics. The camel, belonging to the class of ruminants, is one of the larger quadrupeds, being six or seven feet from the ground to the highest part of the back, and carrying its head, when erect, about nine feet above the plane of its position. The carcase weighs about three or four hundred pounds; but the size and weight are far from being alike in all. The neck is long and slender, and seems to grow out of the lower part of the body, between the fore legs. The head is small, and the ears short; the eyes are of various colors—from a black to almost a white—bright, and sparkling with instinctive intelligence, and placed on the sides of the head in such a manner that the animal can see before, behind, and on every side. The tail is short and hangs down, with a small bunch at the end. The legs are long and slender, though their points are stout and strong. The feet are divided somewhat like those of an ox, with hoofs on the extreme points of the toes; the soles are soft, yielding, and remarkably broad, and, being made like little cushions, produce a very trifling impression upon a vacillating surface.

Notwithstanding, however, this softness of its foot, the camel can walk over the roughest roads, stones, sharp thorns, and roots of trees, without being hurt. Under such circumstances the animal is sometimes provided with shoes of sheepskin.

The camel is generally of a light color, from which it varies to a dark-brown, and sometimes reddish-brown. It is also marked with white spots or stripes on the forehead and on different parts of the body. It is subject to the mange, to cure which the Arabs bedaub it with *kitran*, or tar. Physiologists, in accounting for the peculiar property of the camel in resisting the want of water, have supposed that it is provided with an additional stomach, of particular conformation, to retain what is imbibed. But it does not appear that there is a particular reservoir for the purpose; and there is reason to think that the same end is attained by the singular structure of the second stomach, being composed of numerous cells, several inches deep, the orifices of which are apparently susceptible of muscular contraction. It is conjectured that when the animal drinks, it has the power of directing the water into these cells, instead of allowing its passage into the second stomach. From the structure of the second stomach, it neither receives food in the first instance, nor does it afterward pass into its cavity. The orifice of the cells composing it are so constructed as to prevent the entrance of solid food into them.

Of all animals, the camel is the most ancient, the completest, and the most laborious slave. It is the most ancient slave, because it inhabits those climates where men were first polished. It is the most complete slave, because of the other species of domestic animals, such as the horse, the dog, the ox, the sheep, the hog, we still find individuals in a state of nature, and

which have not submitted to man. But the whole species of camel is enslaved, for none of them exist in their primitive state of liberty and independence. Lastly, it is the most laborious slave, because it is never kept for pomp, amusement, or the use of the table, like other domestic animals, but is always made a beast of burden; its body being regarded as a living carriage, which its master may load or overload even during sleep. Buffon, *Histoire Naturelle*; Col. Hamilton Smyth's Supplement to Cuvier; Jardine's Natural History of Ruminating Animals; Huc's Recollections of a Journey in Tartary; Pananti's Residence in Algiers.

Fleece—Fabrics. The camel annually casts its hair, in the spring, and it all goes, to the last fragment, before the new comes on. For about 20 days it is as naked as if it had been clean shaved from head to tail. While in this state, it is extremely sensitive to cold, rain, and the annoyance of flies, from which latter its keeper is careful to preserve it by the application of tar. But by degrees the hair grows again; at first it is extremely fine and beautiful, and when it is once more long and thick, the camel can brave the severest frost. The fleece of an ordinary camel weighs about ten pounds; but its color and abundance depend entirely on the particular species of camel and the climate which it inhabits. That of the Arabian camel is thin and whitish; that of the Bactrian camel, thicker and darker-colored. From the hair a coarse kind of clothing, almost impermeable to water, is made for camel drivers and shepherds; and the same commodity, for an analogous purpose, is used as wrappers of merchandise long exposed to wet in heavy rains. But in Persia and the Crimea more valuable manufactures are produced in narrow cloths of different colors, and fine stockings, of which white are the highest priced. It is wrought into shawls, carpets, and coverings for the tents of the Arabs. The Tartar women of the plains manufacture a kind of warm, soft, and light narrow cloth from the hair of the Bactrian camel, preserving the natural colors. The hair, of different colors, is an article of export from Asia and Africa; its value is proportioned to the fineness and depth of color, that which is black being the dearest. Huc; Griffith's Animal Kingdom; Pallas' Travels.

Milk—Flesh. The Arab generally rises before early dawn, and his first task is to milk his camels, who have been prevented straying away from his tent during the night, by tying up one of their legs and fastening it with a noose; while at the same time he removes a net which is placed so as to prevent the young camels sucking the mothers, until a certain portion of the milk is drawn for the use of the tent. The milk is excellent, both for butter and cheese. The natives of Africa esteem camel's flesh more than that of any other animal. It is related that Heliogabalus had camel's flesh served at his banquets, and that he was especially partial to the foot. This latter dainty the emperor had the honor of discovering. Huc; Pananti; Lord's Algiers; Moll, *Agriculture de l'Algerie*.

Food—Sustenance. Properties which are denied to the greater portion of quadrupeds are possessed by the camel, and in their fullest extent converted to the use of mankind. It feeds on thistles, on the stunted shrubs and withered herbage of the desert, and can pass successive days in total want of water, thus seeming as if purposely designed by nature for the most cheerless and inhospitable regions. It is exceedingly fond of the huge succulent leaves of the cactus, the strong, needle-like thorns seeming to act upon its leathern palate as an agreeable stimulant. It also munches with great gusto the dry bones with which the routes in the desert are

strewn. On long journeys over a desert destitute of herbage, a few beans or flower-balls, or a little barley, suffice to enable it to perform its task. Pliny's observation of camels disturbing the water with their feet is very just, and it may further be observed that they are a long time in drinking—first of all, thrusting their heads a great way above their nostrils into the water, and then making several successive draughts in the same manner as pigeons. Over large expanses of desert, where the soil is dry and powdered with saline matter, the water, when water there is, is brackish. This want of fresh streams is very unfavorable to cattle, but occasions no suffering to the camel, which delights in salt in every shape. Huc; Moll; Richardson's Travels; Blofield's Algeria; Kennedy's Algeria and Tunis.

Motion. The motion of the camel is unlike that of most other animals. Both the feet on the same side are successively raised, and not alternately like those of a horse. As it thus advances two common paces of the horse at a time, it costs it less exertion to go over the same distance. Pananti; Keatinge's Travels.

Intelligence, Docility, Training. The camel grows up like a child under the tent of its master, partakes of his plenty as well as his penury, enjoys his songs and understands his bidding. Its docility springs from habit and reflection—nay, we may almost say from moral feeling; for it rebels when its temper is not sagaciously managed. When the French went to Algiers and got possession of camels, they thought that their obedience might be enforced like that of mules and asses, by simple beating; but they soon showed their conquerors that they were not to be so treated, and that both their kick and their bite were rather formidable. The Arabs assert that the animal is so sensible of ill-treatment, that when this is carried too far, the inflictor will not find it easy to escape its vengeance. Eager, however, to express its resentment, it no longer retains any rancor, when once it is satisfied; and it is even sufficient for it to believe that it has avenged its injury. When an Arab has excited the rage of a camel, he throws down his garments in some place near which the animal is to pass. It immediately recognizes the clothes, seizes and shakes them with its teeth, and tramples on them in a rage. When its anger is thus appeased, it leaves them, and the owner may then appear and guide it as he wills. There is no trouble in littering or feeding the camel. As soon as its load is taken off, it is turned out to graze on whatever it can find around its owner's tent, and never looked after until it is again required to continue its journey. At other times it shelters the weary traveler stretched along the sand, watches over his slumbers, and like the faithful dog, warns him of the enemy's approach. Its instinct enables it to smell the distant water, and it recognizes the spot with wonderful precision; it is the very type of patience, fortitude, and perseverance; charged with a heavy load, constantly traveling over the sand—from which its nostrils, shaped like narrow oblique slits, and provided with a sphincter muscle like the eyelids, are defended with hairs at their margins—exposed to hunger, thirst, and the hottest rays of the sun, it suffers the fatigue and pain with incomparable meekness; it lies down on the burning sand, without betraying the least degree of impatience; while at all able to support its load, and continue the journey, it strains every nerve to proceed; it neither flags nor relaxes, until absolutely worn out, when it falls, to rise no more: thus rendering its last breath on the very spot it ceases to be useful. The camel is occasionally employed in the plow and other agricultural pursuits, like oxen or horses; and in many

Tartar countries, it is used to draw the coaches of the kings or princes; but physiologists remark that when used in the yoke or harness, the elevation of its shoulders is cause of a waste of strength; besides, for the purpose of traction, it can only be used at all upon flat ground, its fleshy feet, which are two in number, and not externally separated, not permitting it to ascend hills, and draw a carriage after it. It is as a beast of burden that the camel is chiefly valuable; and its qualities in this capacity are improved to a great extent, by the mode in which it is trained. At the earliest period, the legs are folded under the body, in which position it is constrained to remain. Its back is covered with a carpet, weighed down with a quantity of stones gradually augmented; it receives a scanty portion of food; it is rarely supplied with water; and in this manner is brought to endure privation. When the time of trial has elapsed, and it is broke into subservience, it kneels at the command of the master, who either mounts it himself, or loads it with a heavy burden; and then trusting to its strength, and the privations it can suffer, he ventures to traverse the trackless desert. When it lies down to receive its load, it rests upon the callosities of its breasts and limbs. It is ridden upon, loaded, or unloaded, either with or without the pack-saddle; if without, the rider rides behind the hump, using no manner of bridle, guiding the beast only by striking gently with a stick on his neck. The saddle, when used, is placed upon the withers, in front of the hump, and the legs of the rider, when mounted, rest upon the animal's neck: when razzias are made, two men are mounted on each. In rising from its crouching posture, the camel, which is in general so deliberate in all its actions, mounts on its hind legs first very briskly, as soon as the rider leans on his saddle to spring up, and throws him first forward and then backward; and it is not until the fourth motion, when the beast is entirely on its legs, that the rider can find his balance. The camel signifies that it is sufficiently loaded either by a hiss or a shake of the head; it will refuse to rise if laden with even a half pound beyond its exact burden. A drove of camels will all rise or lie down, at the word of command, as if struck by the same blow. They are made to eat in a circle, all kneeling down, head to head, and eye to eye; within this circle of heads is thrown the fodder; each camel claims its portion, eating that directly opposite to its head. Kennedy; Huc; Richardson; Pananti; Griffith; Lord; Animal Biography; Campbell's Letters; Morgan's Algiers; Denon's Travels; Ali Bey's Travels.

Travel. The progress of the camel is in general slow, especially when collected in numbers to compose a caravan; but its pace is regular and uniform, and constitutes no inaccurate measurement of distance over desolate regions, where there is no guide. It does not appear that the load of the camel materially affects its progress; the chief difference, in that case, lying in the daily duration of its march. The camels are tied one after another, held together by strings in their nose, and are not allowed to graze during the march. This is an advantage; for much time would otherwise be lost by the camels cropping herbage by the way. The files are twenty and thirty in number, and sometimes these files are double. In mountainous districts, they are untied; otherwise one camel slipping would draw another after it, and so the whole line would be thrown into confusion. The operation of piercing the nose and passing through it a piece of wood, which is to serve as a bit, is painful, and causes the animal to utter loud wails. "Slow and sure," has in no case whatever so good an application as it has to the

progress of the camel's march. It is in the desert it gives proof of its peculiar advantages; its long neck, perpendicularly erected, removes its head from the sand waves; its eyes, which it keeps half shut, are well defended by thick eye-lids largely provided with hair; the construction of its feet prevents its treading deep into the sand; its long legs enable it to pass over the same space with only half the number of steps of any other animal, and therefore with less fatigue. These advantages give it a solid and easy gait on a ground where all other animals walk with slow, short, and uncertain steps. In fact, it is only in mounting or descending, or upon a wet and marshy soil, that it becomes unsteady and unwieldy. Sometimes, when there are many camels traveling together, the drivers beat drums, and attach small bells to the knees of the leading camels, and if it becomes necessary to quicken their pace, the Arabs strike up a kind of song which has the effect of cheering the whole party and urging them forward. Ali Bey; Pananti; Huc; Richardson.

Foal—Longevity. Though the camel produces but one at a time, or rarely two, the care which is observed in their multiplication renders them numerous. A caravan will exhibit a thousand, nay, four or five thousand collected together, and a single individual will be the master of four or five hundred. The Dey of Tunis, singly, owns thirty thousand. The period of gestation brings no rest to the camel; the female is delivered by the way, at a halt in the desert; the foal may be seen stretched on the ground as if lifeless, the mother standing over and looking at it. But the foal does not remain so long; for in one or two days it will be up on its legs; in four or five days, it will be able to run after its dam a part of a day's march; and in seven or eight days it will be able to continue a whole day's journey. The cry of the foal is very much like that of a child; in marching it is tied upon its mother's back; it remains with its mother and sucks a whole year; it sucks its mother within four hours after its birth; the mother sometimes makes a great noise over her young one. The foal frolics in awkward antics a few days after its birth, but apparently soon loses its infant mirth. This is not surprising; for in the first place it has to walk as long a day as its mother—enough to take the fun out of the little thing; next, it sees all its more aged companions very serious and melancholy, and soon imbibes their sombre air. The she-camels have a foal every other year, but some few every year. It is five years before the camel attains maturity. The training of the foal commences when about a year old; when first laden with light weights it will cry, groan, grumble most piteously, and run off like mad, trying to throw off the load. The camel lives between forty and fifty years, but it is not unlikely that the duration of its life depends upon the treatment it receives. Hamilton Smyth; Richardson.

Varieties. Notwithstanding our familiarity with the camel, the different species and varieties are by no means well understood; which produces some inconsistency in the accounts of the properties which it possesses. There are two species so distinct, however, that they cannot possibly be mistaken: the one, the Bactrian camel, having two humps on its back; the other, of somewhat smaller size, called the Arabian camel. The hump, which is of a fleshy or glandular consistence, but not produced by a curvature of the spine, is a prominent character of the whole race. Griffith; Jardine.

Bactrian Camel. This variety is characterized by two humps—one on the hump and another above the shoulders. It is larger, stouter, longer of body and shorter of limb than the Arabian camel. It is able to carry one

thousand pounds, and is even sometimes made to carry fifteen hundred pounds for short journeys, or to escape the tribute which is levied upon single burdens; an object which is attained by putting the loads of two or three camels upon one, when about to enter towns where tribute is collected. The usual burden in long expeditions is from five hundred to eight hundred pounds, so disposed that half the weight hangs on each side. Yet under such a heavy load, if care be taken to feed the animal in proportion to the fatigue to be supported, it is afterwards sustained on an inconsiderable quantity of beans, or a few balls of barley meal daily, thrown on the ground when it halts. Whole days, however, may elapse without the animal tasting either food or water. Travelers frequently speak of having experienced this in long marches. Laden with eight hundred weight, it can travel forty miles a day. It often happens that travelers do not give themselves the trouble to dismount at night in order to sleep. When a caravan has reached a fat pasture, the camels disperse themselves this way and that and begin to graze, while the travelers, astride between their humps, are sleeping as soundly as if they were in their beds. A single driver will conduct a number of these camels, tied one to the tail of the other. It is stated that this animal cannot swim, and that it has such a terror of water as to make it sometimes impossible to get it into a boat; with a raft there is less difficulty.* This animal abounds in northern, central, and eastern Asia. It was introduced by the Grand Duke Leopold into Tuscany, where it continues to breed in the *maremmas* of the Pisan territory. Immense numbers of these animals are bred in the Tell of Algeria, a region of country which includes the tablelands adjacent to the Mediterranean, and the gentle slopes of the lesser Atlas. In parts of this region snow falls every year, and lies on the ground several weeks. In Algeria, the price of a camel of this variety ranges from eighteen to thirty dollars. In the city of Algiers, the trade in camels is chiefly in the hands of the *Mozabis*, a resident tribe. Hamilton Smyth; Griffith; Moll; Pananti; Blofield; Kennedy; Huc; Malte-Brun's *Geography*; Shaler's *Sketches of Algiers*.

Arabian Camel. This variety has only a single hump on its back. It is of smaller size, less hairy, and still more enduring than the Bactrian camel. In the rutting season it is subject to fits of rage and violence, and it is necessary to muffle it. In the same season a species of bladder hangs from its mouth, out of which issues a quantity of foam. These animals often fight among themselves, and their hostility affords great amusement to the Moors and Turks. The Arabian camel is able to carry, for long journeys, from three to six hundred pounds. It is supposed the hump serves for its nourishment, as it disappears in the days of starvation and hunger. It makes about two thousand two hundred of its double steps in an hour. This double step covers about five feet and a half of our measure. It will march eight hundred miles in three hundred and twenty two hours, which is at the rate of two miles and a-half per hour. It never stumbles or falls. There is no necessity either to beat or direct it. Its pace is slow, but it makes long strides and will march fifteen or sixteen hours at a stretch. It carries the women and children of the Arabs in paniers adjusted on either side. The Moors and Arabs are oad loaders of camels, and their contrivances for ad-

* This terror of water is occasioned by want of familiarity with it as a resisting element, and under the same circumstances is observable in a horse, which has no greater structural ability for swimming than the camel.

justing burdens are deficient in ingenuity. Its pace is very steady, and the traveler may sleep, eat and drink, read and write, on its back; by spreading his bed-clothes on the saddle, he will be enabled to change his posture, and to rest himself so as to avoid the direct force of the sun's rays. As the animal walks with long and regular steps, the rider feels the motion no otherwise than if he were rocked in a cradle. When travelers on horseback are weary and faint from the fatigue of riding and the excessive heat, the rider of the camel will find himself as little exhausted as if he had ridden all day in a chaise. The saddle is always open above, that it may not hurt the hump of the animal. Denham describes it as swimming rivers, with its head fastened to a raft. The female is more valuable than the male, as it contributes more, by its milk, to the sustenance of the tribes. The Arabian camel has spread from Arabia all over the northern parts of Africa, and has long been essential to the Commerce of those dry and desert regions. Richardson; Kennedy; Griffith; Pananti; Moll; Blofield; Lord; Morgan; Campbell; Shaler; Major Rennell, in the Transactions of the Royal Society; Denham's Travels; Lamping's Soldier of Fortune; Niebuhr's Travels; Wilson's Campaign in Egypt; Russel's Barbary States; Murray's Discovery in Africa; McQueen's Geographical Survey; Conder's Travels.

Dromedary. This animal is a sub-variety of the Arabian camel, to which it stands in the same relation that a thorough-bred racer does to a cart horse. The hump is without fat, and very small, and its whole shape exhibits an appearance of strength and spirit. Its habitual pace is a trot, which it is able to sustain the whole day at about the same speed as the ordinary trot of a horse; but over rough or slippery ground the rate of speed is much reduced. The saddle is like a horse's and covers the hump. The dromedary is managed by a bridle, which is usually fastened to a ring fixed in its nostrils. It is unquestionable that this animal can travel one hundred and even two hundred miles in twenty-four hours. Like the camel it kneels to receive its load or a rider on its back. At a certain signal, it droops its head and neck, so that one can alight and remount, whenever there is occasion, without making the animal stop. When once fixed in the saddle, the rider has only to give way to the motion of the beast, and he soon finds that it is impossible to be more pleasantly mounted for a long journey; especially as no attention is requisite to guide the animal, except in turning it out of its straight-forward direction, which very seldom happens in the desert, and in a caravan. Its pace is light, the opening angle of its long legs, and the flexible spring of its lean foot rendering its trot easier than that of any horse, and at the same time full as swift. The sand is truly its element, for as soon as it quits it, and touches the mud, it can hardly keep upon its feet, and its repeated trips alarm the rider for the safety of himself and baggage. The young dromedary is born blind, and continues so for about ten days. The dromedary is found in Arabia, in the great African desert, and in all the Barbary states; but it is chiefly in the Eastern Sahara that it abounds. Mounted on his dromedary, dressed out fantastically in various and many-colored harness, with his sword slung on his back, dagger under the left arm, and lance in his right hand, the Touarghee warrior sallies forth to war. A very fine dromedary is six-and-a-half feet in height. The price of this animal is from ten to two hundred times that of the ordinary camel. Niebuhr; Denon; Keatinge; Kennedy; Richardson; Blofield; Lord; Morgan; Shaler; Jackson's Morocco; Lyon's Travels.

Military uses. In northern India, the English use camels for the transportation of munitions of war. A corps of mounted dromedaries is also employed. In Algeria, field-pieces are carried by camels; the battery devised for artillery service in the desert is a model of its kind; guns, *caissons*, and carriages are folded up in the most compact form, ready to be fastened on the backs of these animals. Sick men, in their beds, are carried by camels. The *ambulance* used by the French army in Africa is a most ingenious contrivance. This *ambulance*, called *cacolet*, is a species of pack-saddle, made of wood and iron, and adapted for the backs of camels. The *cacolet* has on each side two iron chairs, which fold up within a very small compass; so that a camel may depart with a column, carrying boxes of biscuits, barrels of meat, flour, and other provisions, and may bring back sick or wounded soldiers, to whom these chairs afford a safe and commodious conveyance. It is necessary that the men should be seated so that they may as nearly as possible counterbalance each other's weight. Some of these iron chairs are made to spread out at sufficient length to enable a sick or wounded soldier to lie down. Camel caravans will be unapproachable by mounted Indians, as the camel, when first seen by horses, inspires uncontrollable terror. Kennedy; Niebuhr; Hamilton Smyth; Bodichon, Surgeon-General in Africa, in the *Memoires de la Societe Geographique*; St. Marie's Visit to the French Possessions in Africa.

Acclimation. The natural abode of the camel is in regions abounding with sand or gravel, where food is scanty, and exposure to long-protracted privations unavoidable; and as deserts exist in cold as well as warm climates, so does the camel. Like man, it adapts itself to every clime, nature enabling it to endure with equal fortitude the extremes of heat and cold. Widely as it is now dispersed over Asia and northern Africa, there is historical evidence to show that there was a period when it was a stranger even in Africa, and when its sphere in Asia was comparatively limited. Now, its geographical diffusion is equal to that of most other domesticated animals. It has followed the radiations of war, Commerce, and emigration over a stupendous segment of the earth's surface, stretching across the whole of Asia, and extending as far north as Lake Baikal in Siberia, in the sub-polar climate comprehended between latitudes 56° and 58°. It is much used in eastern Europe. In Africa, it resignedly plods its weary way across its entire breadth, and from the shores of the Mediterranean to the region of the tropical rains. These facts demonstrate that the camel is easily acclimated, and that its *habitat* is not limited by climate, but by the nature of the soil, which must be suited to the peculiar configuration of its foot. Hamilton Smyth; Griffith; Jardine; Humboldt's Views of Nature.

American Camel Region. Recent explorations demonstrate that the high table-lands of Texas, New Mexico, Utah, Sonora, Chihuahua, Durango, and portions of Central Mexico are fitted for camel travel; for over those lands the varieties of the cactus abound, and the soil is gravelly and sandy; the climate being at the same time isothermal with that of the Tell of Algeria. This remarkable adaptation did not fail to attract the attention of Mr. Bartlett, late commissioner for running the boundary line between the United States and Mexico, and the advantages that would be gained by using camels, instead of mules and horses, as a means of transportation, often occurred to him. From proof-sheets of Mr. Bartlett's forthcoming work, now in the press of the Appletons of this city, the following extracts are made, with the author's courteous permission. Mr. Bartlett thus expresses himself in one place:—

From my experience of nearly three years with horses, mules, asses, and oxen, and with wagons, carts, and packs, I do not hesitate to hazard the opinion that the introduction of camels and dromedaries would prove an immense benefit to our present means of transportation, that they would be a great saving to animal life, and would present facilities for crossing our broad deserts and prairies not possessed by any other domestic animals now in use.

Elsewhere Mr. Bartlett adds:—

The entire route from the Mississippi to California, particularly that south of Santa Fe by the Gila, where there are no mountains to cross, and also the great highway over the table-lands of Mexico, are well adapted to his habits. But he would be most useful on those long jornadas and deserts where there is either no water, or where it is so brackish that mules and horses will not drink it. There are peculiarities in the arid plains and deserts of North America which seem to fit them for the habits of the camel. His favorite food in Africa is beans and chopped straw. Now it is a well-known fact that, however barren our deserts, they abound in mesquit bushes, or chapporal, which shrub bears a most nutritious bean. Whether this plant attains a height of three feet on the desert or twenty in the bottom lands, it is equally prolific. Mules and cattle feed on them when they cannot get grass or corn; yet they never thrive on them, but on the contrary, lose flesh. Other peculiarities are the salines and salt lakes which abound on the arid plains, as well as on the slopes towards both oceans. When driven to great extremities mules will sometimes drink this salt or brackish water; but I have driven them fifty or sixty miles without water, yet on reaching a saline not one in ten would touch it. To camels, brackish water is as acceptable as if from the purest fountains.

Humboldt's New Spain; Bartlett's Report; Humboldt's *Tableau des Bandes Isothermales*.

National importance. In view of the vast plains, destitute of herbage and water, which stretch across the American camel region—of the inefficiency of the means of transportation now in use—of the obstruction and frequent defeat of the pursuit of mounted Indians—and of the superior and peculiar capabilities of the camel, the Secretary of War, in his late report, presses with great urgency upon the attention of Congress the expediency of making an appropriation from the national treasury for the importation of a sufficient number of the different varieties of this animal. The report says:—

The absence of navigable steams in a large portion of our recently acquired territory, and the existence of the vast arid and mountainous regions, described in another part of this report, have entailed upon the government a very heavy charge for the transportation of supplies, and for the services of troops stationed along our new frontier, and operating against the predatory and nomadic Indians of those regions. The cost of transportation within that country for purposes connected with military defence, amounted, in the year ending June, 1853, to \$451,775 07.

The modes of transportation now used—wagons drawn by horses, mules, or oxen—besides being very expensive, are necessarily circuitous on the routes traveled, slow, and generally unsatisfactory, as to prompt inquiry for means which may be attained with better results. In any extended movement, these wagon trains must depend upon grass for forage, and their progress will seldom average more than twelve miles per day; and it often happens, in traversing the country just referred to, that long spaces are encountered in which there is neither grass nor water, and hence the consequence must be severe privation and great destitution of the animals employed, if not the failure of the expedition. These inconveniences are felt in all movements between the distant parts of that section, and seriously obstruct, sometimes actually defeat the pursuit of the mounted Indians of the plains who, by their intimate knowledge of the places where the the small supplies of water and grass are to be found, are able to fly across the

most arid regions after having committed depredations on our frontier population, or upon the trains of merchants and emigrants.

Beyond the difficulties here contemplated in connection with transportation to the interior, it is proper to look to those which would arise in the transportation of supplies for the defence of our Pacific coast in a contingency of a war with a maritime power. Our experience has been confined to a state of peace and to the use of routes of communication which pass beyond the limits of our territory. Reasoning from the difficulties which have been encountered in supplying points where it was necessary only to traverse a part of the space which lies between the Pacific coast and the points of supply, it may be claimed as a conclusion that it would not be practicable with the means now possessed to send across the continent the troops, munitions, and provisions which would be required for the defence of the Pacific coast. A railroad, such as has been contemplated to connect by the most eligible route the Mississippi River with the Pacific coast, would but partially remove the difficulties. It would serve to transport troops, and to supply depots along the route and at the extremity of the line, but there would still be vast regions of the interior too remote from its depots materially to feel its effects.

On the older continents, in regions reaching from the torrid to the frozen zones, embracing arid plains and precipitous mountains covered with snow, camels are used, with the best results. They are the means of transportation and communication in the immense commercial intercourse with central Asia. From the mountains of Circassia to the plains of India they have been used for various military purposes, to transmit dispatches, to transport supplies, to draw ordnance, and as a substitute for dragoon horses.

Napoleon, when in Egypt, used with marked success the dromedary, a fleet variety of the same animal, in subduing the Arabs, whose habits and country were very similar to those of the mounted Indians of our western plain. I learn, from what is believed to be reliable authority, that France is about again to adopt the dromedary in Algeria, for a similar service to that in which they were so successfully used in Egypt.

For like military purposes, for express, and for reconnoissances, it is believed the dromedary would supply a want now seriously felt in our service; and for transportation with troops rapidly moving across the country, the camel, it is believed, would remove an obstacle which now serves greatly to diminish the value and efficiency of our troops on the western frontier.

For these considerations, it is respectfully submitted that the necessary provision be made for the introduction of a sufficient number of both varieties of this animal to test its value and adaptation to our country and our service.—*Gen. Jefferson Davis's Report, Dec. 1, 1853.*

Transportation of the camel in ships. The camel is much more manageable in ships than the horse, not retaining, as the latter animal does, a rigid position, but going down on its knees, and yielding to the motion of the vessel. The late Mr. Raymond, of menagerie celebrity, imported over five hundred camels in his life-time into the United States. He never lost a single camel, by accident or disease, at sea.

In conclusion, we think that the facts adduced in this article demonstrate the superior organization of the Camel, and that, as a beast of burden, it is better fitted to subserve the wants of man over a large extent of the national domain, than either the horse or the mule, the only means of transportation now in use, or likely to be, for many years to come, unless well considered private enterprise shall assist in carrying out the views of the projectors of the domestication of the Camel on this continent.

ART. II.—COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES.

NO. VIII.

NEW ENGLAND: PROGRESS IN POPULATION, TRADE, AND IMPORTANCE—ENGLISH HOSTILITY TO HER NAVIGATION INTEREST—EXCISION OF THE NEWFOUNDLAND COLONY—NAVIGATION LAWS—WHALE FISHERY—PHILIP'S WAR—STATE OF THE MIDDLE COLONIES—THE SOUTH: EFFECT OF TRADE BURDENS IN VIRGINIA AND CAROLINA—CHARLESTON—THE MISSISSIPPI AND FRENCH PROGRESS AT THE WEST—SPANISH TREATY—HONDURAS—EXPORT DUTIES—FRENCH COLONIES, ETC.

WITH the year 1670, half a century had elapsed since the commencement of the settlement at Plymouth. The growth of New England, and of the other colonies settled within that time, is presented in the following comparative series of actual enumerations, combined with proximate statements, which we have made out from various data, of their population for the several periods indicated:—

	1624.	1630.	1637.	1654.	1678.
Plymouth.....	180	300	549	2,941	9,410
Massachusetts.....	1,800	7,912	16,026	35,644
Connecticut.....	200	3,186	8,000
Rhode Island.....	1,959	3,500
New England.....	180	2,100	8,661	24,112	56,534
New York.....	50	200	500	1,800	3,500
Virginia.....	2,500	4,000	10,000	25,000	42,000
Maryland.....	200	1,000	20,000
Carolina.....
Total*.....	2,730	6,300	19,361	51,412	122,054

Some estimates give a much higher population to Connecticut and Rhode Island, in 1678; but the report of the Governor and Assembly of those colonies in 1680, to the Board of Trade, and all the documents of the period, sustain the amounts stated above.

The commercial progress of New England had begun at this time to excite much attention in Britain. The term *New England* was understood, we would remark, at this time, and for a period long subsequent, indeed down to the time of the Revolution, to refer almost exclusively to Massachusetts, which embraced the territory of Maine within her limits, and to which New Hampshire had, by the voluntary action of her people, united herself. Her preponderance in extent, population, Commerce, wealth, and political power, was such as to give entire character to the section, and cast its other members into the shade.

Plymouth, the present colony, was almost entirely confined to the near fishery, pursued in boats and ketches, and farming. It had no foreign or distant trade whatever, and but a small coasting trade, a small part of which was along Long Island Sound, and as far even as New York; but it was confined mostly to Boston and the extended Massachusetts shore. The country a little back of the original settlement was still a wilderness.

* Barbadoes, the most populous of the British West India colonies, was said to contain, in 1670, about 50,000 whites and above 100,000 negroes. This estimate was undoubtedly exaggerated; yet the island was very thickly populated—more so, indeed, than most parts of Europe, exclusive of large towns. The area of Barbadoes is but 106,470 acres. Cuba had, in 1680, about 40,000 inhabitants.

Of Connecticut, the statement of the authorities in 1680, gave a population of 10,000, slowly increasing, divided in 26 towns. There were about 30 slaves. The trade at that period was mostly with Boston and New York, and was carried on by 20 petty merchants in 24 small vessels, and the imports did not exceed £9,000. The property of the whole corporation was valued at £110,000.

The answer of Rhode Island to the inquiries of the Board of Trade in 1680, states that that colony had no foreign Commerce, and no trade with the Indians. Their coast was little frequented, and not at all at that time, by pirates or privateers. With their neighbors they had some little intercourse. The principal place of trade was Newport; they had no shipping except a few sloops. Like Connecticut and Plymouth, they received the little amount of foreign articles imported mostly from Boston. The principal exports of the colony were horses and provisions, which went to the West Indies; and the imports were a small quantity of the produce of Barbadoes, for their own use. There were several persons who dealt in buying and selling, but they could not properly be called merchants. The want of these, of men of considerable estate, was the great obstruction to trade. They were sensible that the fishing business might prove very profitable, were there men of property willing to carry it on. There were about 500 planters, and as many men in other pursuits. There were of late few or no emigrants, except that a few negro slaves had been imported. The population was divided in 9 towns.

It was undoubtedly the case, that the colonies endeavored in the reports at this, as at other times, to put their importance at as low a standard as possible, in order to avert the establishment of a revenue system and other interference in their concerns, by England. It is said that the sloops alluded to were larger than the average size of brigs of the present day, and that at this time, or later, a considerable business was carried on by the Rhode Islanders in the slave-trade between Africa and the West Indies. It is certain, however, that all the three colonies named were yet in a condition very humble compared with the progress that had been made by Massachusetts. To the importance of the latter, the addition made by New Hampshire was, except territorially, quite inconsiderable, the security of the latter being the whole object of the union on their part. They, however, contributed most of the masts and timber exported to England. Live oak and other kinds of oak, white and red oak staves, hoops, shingles, and clapboards, were prepared by the New Hampshire farmers in large quantities, during the winter, and were exchanged for manufactured goods.

Although England rejoiced in the possession of a colony in this section so well advanced, and promising to be of so much benefit to her as Massachusetts, there were serious drawbacks to her gratification. Although it should seem the commercial progress of the colony would have been matter of unalloyed satisfaction, there were points therein involved which excited anything but a pleasing humor. Massachusetts had already a large and rapidly growing navigation interest, and was evidently aiming—in spite of the efforts of the home government to limit her progress in this direction—to become a great navigating power; to save to herself the freights paid on the export of her own or other products abroad and on the return of the foreign products obtained in exchange. Her commercial seemed on a level with her political aspirations, which, it had already been noted, looked directly toward independence. She would finally rival England in the carry-

ing trade, and, if not restrained, would entirely drive her ships from the ocean. Sir Josiah Child, a leading political writer of the day, pointed out to the government and to the merchants, the jealousy of both being very easily excited, the direful result in view. In a work published by him, on the state of the colonies, about 1670, he remarks:—

“Of all the American plantations, his majesty has none so apt for the building of shipping as New England, nor none comparably so qualified for the breeding of seamen, not only by reason of the natural industry of the people, but principally by reason of their cod and mackerel fisheries; and, in my opinion, there is nothing more prejudicial, and in prospect more dangerous to any mother-kingdom, than the increase of shipping in her colonies, plantations, or provinces.”

The general progress of the colonies in importance, but more especially the jealousy excited by the appearance of a navigating interest within them able to withstand, and to exhibit even a remarkable vitality, in face of the discouragements placed in its way, induced the formation of a permanent Board of Commissioners of Trade and Plantations in 1671. The first act of this new commission was to send out a circular to the governors of all the plantations, territories, and islands of the West Indies—a name still in common use for all America—belonging to Great Britain, demanding to know the condition at that time of the several dependencies under those officials in regard to all their material concerns. What they particularly insist upon is, “to know the condition of New England, which, appearing to be very independent as to their regard to England or his majesty, rich and strong as they now were, there were great debates in what style to write to them, for the condition of that colony was such that they were able to contest with all other plantations about them, and there was a fear of their breaking from all dependence on this nation.”

The various measures to which the fears thus excited gave rise for greater restraint upon colonial Commerce, together with privileges conceded for the joint purpose of advancing the prosperity of England and of exercising a soothing influence upon the colonists, irritated by these restraints, will be noticed in the order of time, as likewise the effect by them produced upon the mind, the action, and the material prosperity of America.

The progress of New England in the Fisheries had heretofore been regarded with high favor, as the blindest could not but see that this resource had been the means not only of lightening the expenses of colonization here upon its patrons in England, but that it had furnished the settlements an efficient means of self-support, where else the possibility of at all maintaining them would have been very equivocal. Neither could it escape attention, that although the interest established in this pursuit was the great basis of the objugated shipping interest of the colonies, the wealth derived from the former was becoming of benefit to England and her other colonies, and was likely, if unrestrained, to raise their trade with the fishing colonies to the utmost importance. So much too were all the present concerns and the prospects of New England wound up in this pursuit, that the English government, unestablished in its supremacy on either continent, would not have dared, had it wished, to abolish or restrain the privilege, knowing as it did the peculiar readiness of the New Englanders to resist the least encroachment upon their rights or liberties, and being already impressed with a fear that their aim was at ultimate independence. The measures of restraint were therefore directed solely against the outward employment of the

shipping thus created, leaving its great source unaffected. Yet even had it not been the occasion of building up for her a navigating interest, the advancement of New England in the fisheries must at this time have excited the uneasy reflections of the home government. The fisheries had been regarded as a main support of *their* shipping interest also; but the rapid progress of the colonies in this pursuit, simultaneously with a remarkable and continuous decline on their own part, threatened entire annihilation to this school for British seamen. From 400 English ships employed in the cod fishery at Newfoundland in 1622, the number had decreased in 1670, to 80 ships. New England meanwhile had been encouraged by her success to push her efforts beyond the banks of Newfoundland; and in the latter year some of her vessels, for the first time, visited the coast of Labrador, where the avocation was thereafter regularly carried on.

Other causes, as well as the advance of New England, however, contributed to the decline of the English fishery in America. One of these was the increasing liberty in Catholic countries to eat flesh in Lent and on fish-days. Another, was the successful rivalry of the French fishery at Nova Scotia. But the cause to which the English writers mainly attributed their misfortune, was the increasing boat fishery carried on by their own people settled at Newfoundland. Here was a point at which they could safely strike. The English merchants had for a long time been generally ill-disposed toward any attempt at legitimate colonization of that island, and were as little willing to favor the squatter fishermen occupying a portion of its shores. Both interfered too much with their ship fishery. An appeal of these settlers to the government for a colonial charter and protection against the ship fishermen, who paid no respect to their rights or interests, had been successfully opposed by the merchants. They were quite ready to second the views and efforts of Child, who in the same work already alluded to, depicted the evils to England of the establishments at Newfoundland. "Without a remedy, it would happen to us," he said, "in a few years in that country as it hath done with regard to the fishery at New England, which so many years since was managed by English ships from our western ports, as the Newfoundland fishery at present chiefly is; but as the plantations of New England increased, that fishery fell entirely to the people there."

He feared the total extinction, from the Newfoundland settlements, of the British fishery and of their nursery of seamanship, the loss of which would really have ruined forever their commercial and naval, and, of course, their political supremacy. For the injury thus done and threatened, the settlements in question afforded, it was declared scarcely the slightest compensation. The provisions and clothing required by them were supplied wholly by New England and Ireland. In view of this state of things, Child coolly advised the excision of the settlements at Newfoundland. So all previous efforts to colonize that island were to be regarded as attempts made by England to undermine her own prosperity, and all the money expended in these purposes, as treasure worse than thrown away. The same considerations, carried to their legitimate conclusion, should have suggested also the good policy of undoing all that had been accomplished in New England, and of giving over that region again to the undivided possession of the heirs of Massasoit and Canonicus.

The lords of the sagacious Board of Trade and Plantation, whose only interference with the affairs of America seems to have been to inflict mutual

injury upon England and her colonies, adopted the benevolent scheme thus presented to them. The order to depopulate Newfoundland was given in 1670, and Sir John Berry was sent with a sufficient force to perform the noble work of driving out the fishermen and burning their dwellings; and to make the desolation effectual, emigration thither from that time forward was forbidden. The order was maintained in effect for six years, the devastation not being within that time made complete, as the task was not so easy a one as had perhaps been anticipated. The island was large and refuge easy. The work of ejection required to be perpetually done over, as those who were driven out in great part returned again, and found little trouble in raising new huts for themselves as good as they had occupied before. Of course, the troublesome proceedings against them in no wise increased their disposition to befriend and assist the ship fishery and fishermen of England. Those fully expelled, resorted to the French settlements adjacent, or to New England, and continued the business. The affair was the means also of drawing the attention of those disposed to emigrate toward Newfoundland, a desire was excited to share in the supposed profits of the interdicted settlement and fishery, and complaint was made that, in spite of the order, the emigration to Newfoundland continued unabated.

The vessels in the Newfoundland fishery from England had increased from 80 in 1670, to 270, carrying 10,800 men, in 1674. In 1677, 102 vessels, value of catch £1,738,000. New England had in the distant fisheries, in 1678, 665 vessels of 25,650 tons, and 4,405 men, the amount of their annual catch being 400,000 cwt., valued at about \$1,000,000. The increase of English vessels may have been in some degree due to the depopulation of the island of Newfoundland, so far as it had been effected, but was the result, undoubtedly, in a much greater measure, of the Dutch war, and of the failure of the herring fishery on the coast of Sweden, by which events the southern countries of Europe were mainly deprived of their large supplies usually received from Holland and Sweden, and an opening to their markets made for the English. New England also profited largely from the same cause, and began that trade to Spain, Portugal, and Italy, which became afterward so considerable, and continued in full activity until after the opening of the present century.

Child mentions as an effect of the Navigation Laws at this time, that the shipping of England in the trade with America had become greatly increased, two-thirds of all the English tonnage being thus employed, and affording the means of sustenance to about 200,000 persons in England. Yet, while gaining thus rapidly in a single direction, an event sure to happen from the growth of the colonies in no inconsiderable degree, if at all less than under the present system, had no attempt been made to force trade thither, England was as a consequence of her unfriendly policy towards Europe, losing her markets in France, Spain, Portugal, Italy, and Turkey. The first named of these countries, which had also been vigorously engaged for some years in a policy regarding her manufactures corresponding with that of England concerning her shipping, was rapidly supplanting her in the market of the others. Nay, she intruded so far into the market of England herself, that in 1678, Parliament found it necessary to comply with the urgent solicitations of the merchants, and to *prohibit all trade with France*, unless they were willing the protective system of France should triumph over that of England. In order, therefore, to stop what was in those times considered a loss to England, in the apparent balance of trade against her in the account

with France of £1,000,000 yearly, such an inhibition was declared for the period of three years.

The effect exercised by the colonization and growth of America upon the Commerce of both England and France, is seen in the increase of their shipping, &c., within that period, mainly due to this cause apart from all restrictive policies. Between 1626 and 1676 the tonnage of England had trebled or even quadrupled. She had now above 40,000 tons employed in the African or slave trade between Guinea and the West Indies; her customs had multiplied three-fold, and her postage, it was said, twenty-fold. The French had 40 trading vessels for every one twenty or thirty years previously. America might have conferred much greater benefit upon both powers than they had realized. Instead of being a cause of limiting the intercourse of the European nations with each other, she should have been the fertile occasion of its increase. Had such a system prevailed, England in the healthy development of her great interests would have had no reason for the alarm which the mere appearance of a shipping interest in Massachusetts occasioned, after she had sacrificed her Commerce with the continent of Europe, to force it to a concentration upon America.

The whale fishery of Massachusetts commenced about the opening of this period. Whales abounded on and about the shores of the island of Nantucket, and some few had been taken by the residents of that island. In 1672, the town of Nantucket made a contract with one James Lopar, by which the municipality and Lopar became a joint monopoly for the pursuit of the business. The agreement insured to Lopar one-third the profits, also ten acres of land, commonage for two cows, twenty sheep, and one horse, with necessary wood and water. A fine of 5s. for each whale killed was imposed upon all persons infringing the monopoly right. Such an assumption and grant by a small village was certainly in contravention of the charter of the colony of Rhode Island, if not of that of Massachusetts. Holland had at this time about 200 whaling ships, England about 100. The latter paid 6s. a ton bounty on oil taken by her own fishermen, and was favorable to the pursuit in the colonies, oil being then much in demand and of high value.

In 1673 the first *post-rider* between Boston and New York commenced, leaving the latter city once every three weeks. The population of Boston was then about 4,000, of New York about 2,500. This event indicates the progress of emigration from New England to the middle region, and the increase of Commerce between these sections. The first *Post-Office* in the colonies was established by the Massachusetts General Court, at Boston, in 1677, Thomas Heyward being appointed postmaster. It will be remembered that a *Mint* had also been established in Massachusetts, which Charles was disposed to suppress. The royal dislike of this institution the General Court, in 1677, attacked through his esophagus, by the present of ten barrels of cranberries, two hogheads of sump, and three thousand codfish. The royal epicure was vanquished.

In 1675 the scourge of Philip's war fell upon New England, lasting generally till late in 1676, and in some parts till 1678. A leading cause of this dreadful contest was the unfair dealing practiced by a great many of the whites employed in trading with the Indians. On the long and wild frontier behind the settlements of New Hampshire and Maine, the fur trade was extensively carried on, and there can be no doubt that by the generality of the white traders there, every possible advantage was taken of the Indians, in the purchase both of peltry and land, and in the prices attached to the

articles of payment. Rum was a leading commodity employed in the traffic, and its effects were as pernicious, in every aspect, as in every other case where it has been introduced into the Indian trade. The avidity for gain of many of the traders, and even of respectable merchants, had led to the supplying of the Indians, in violation of law, with fire-arms, which indeed enabled a larger supply of furs, but the gain thus effected to a few, the evil of the practice as afterwards felt, far more than compensated to the mass. The savages, thus armed, were far more formidable, notwithstanding the increased strength of the colonies, than in the Pequod and Narragansett wars. It seemed, indeed, problematical, so severe was the crisis, whether the Indians would not execute upon New England the fate to which the Lords of Trade and Plantation had consigned Newfoundland. Many towns were burned, and a vast amount of property in house and field destroyed. The diminution of wealth was seriously felt in all New England. The settlements in Massachusetts upon the Connecticut River, formed thus far outwardly for the advantage of communicating with the towns below and with the ocean, were nearly all destroyed. In Maine over 100 miles of coast was cleared of settlers, and a considerable number of vessels were captured in the harbors and rivers. Over twenty vessels, mostly from Salem, were captured by surprise in 1677, but were recovered. The people of New Hampshire were glad, after their best efforts to subdue the red men, to effect a peace with those vindictive assailants, on condition of paying to them what they would not concede to England, an annual *tribute*. The tribute was regularly paid until the next war in 1687. Such were the effects mainly due to the introduction of a vicious system in trade, and such the proof that in all intercourse with other men, the balance of profit is on the side of fair dealing.

At about the time of the close of this war, which was not entirely finished up till 1678, Charles revived his designs against New England. One of the most serious complaints proffered against Massachusetts was that of evading the Navigation Act, alleged by the English merchants. To this the colonial legislature had responded that the act in question involved taxation without representation, and was, therefore, unjust and illegal. It was determined, however, that the act should be enforced, and the delayed project was renewed by a special customs system with the proper officials, as in England, and of abolishing all the New England charters and uniting them under a royal government. Willing, in the meantime, to limit the influence of Massachusetts, the claims of that colony to the province of Maine were decided against her in England, in 1677, but she at once bought out the right of the heirs of Gorges, the successful contestants. In 1680, New Hampshire, much against the will of her people, was separated from Massachusetts, and formed into the fifth provincial government of New England.

MIDDLE COLONIES. The capture of the New Netherlands by the English in 1664, brought the whole Atlantic coast of the United States, for the first time, under British dominion. Since that period about one-third of the Dutch inhabitants, the total population being then about 3,000, had removed on account, mainly, of the tyranny exercised over them. Some had returned to Holland, and some had gone to other Dutch colonies, but a large portion accepted the invitation of the proprietors of Carolina, who gave them a free passage thither.

War again occurring, a small Dutch fleet, in 1673, easily retook New York, New Jersey and Delaware also submitting. Peace between England and Holland, in 1674, on the basis of mutual restoration of conquests, re-

consigned the province and its dependencies to the tender mercies of the avaricious duke.*

After coming into final possession of the English, the colony of New York began to prosper, notwithstanding misgovernment. Emigration, which had before set in from New England, continued, and other English subjects arrived, though the illiberality of the duke put a great restraint on the movement thither, and drove nearly all foreigners seeking the English settlements to other colonies. The culture of the soil was now greatly attended to, and Wheat became a leading product of the province. The amount of wheat exported in 1678 was 60,000 bushels; the other exports were peas, beans, pork, tobacco, and peltry, the trade with the Indians of the interior being still kept up. The chief markets were England and the West Indies, a growing intercourse existing also with New England. The imports in 1678, amounted to the value of £50,000 sterling. The improvement was soon made of converting the grain into flour, and thenceforward, the bolting, packing, and exportation of flour and meal became the leading business of the city of New York, supporting, indeed, much the greater part of the population. So dependent was the interest of the city felt to be upon this business, that an act of the provincial authorities secured to it the monopoly thereof, a measure causing afterward much collision between the urban and rural population, if we may so designate the two interests. The distillation of spirits from grain had been commenced prior to 1676, as in that year an order was adopted, forbidding the consumption of any grain for that purpose, unless unfit for other use. The city or town of New York had now twelve streets and 384 houses.

Cartoret, the governor of New Jersey, attempted in 1675 to establish a direct trade between that province and New England, wishing to effect the independence of the former of the Duke of York's colony. Andros, the tyrant of New York, however, warmly opposed the project, claiming for his master the right to render New Jersey tributary to New York, and that it should have no trade except that with or through the medium of the latter.

In 1680, however, the claims of the duke were decided in England unfavorably, and New Jersey became thenceforth the second province of the middle region. The settlers of New Jersey were mostly from New York and New England, and resorted more to agriculture than to Commerce, finding a soil so congenial to that pursuit. A large emigration of quakers from England now ensued.

SOUTHERN COLONIES. Among the causes of dissatisfaction felt in Virginia, in regard to the course of Charles II., was his sanction of the aristocratic government of Berkeley and his peculiarly formed legislature. Unequal taxes, embarrassing to the interests of the colonists were laid, and the salaries of the royal officers were obtained by the odious measure of a permanent *duty on exported tobacco*, relieving them thus of all dependence upon the people. The act was felt with greater severity from the extreme low price at which tobacco had for a long time been sold, and which was alone enough to occasion uneasiness in the colony.

Perhaps in time of ordinary prosperity these taxes would have been quietly borne, or would have excited no more commotion than was exhibited

* In 1672 was formed the famous league between Louis XIV. of France, and Charles II. of England, to crush the Dutch Republic, which defeated their efforts and came out of the contest with real glory. England made peace in 1674, France continuing the war till 1678, Holland, after the English peace, being aided by Sweden.

in the equally or worse misgoverned province of New York. Under the circumstances the event—to which, indeed, the influences of political misdirection and an Indian war contributed, but none we believe so efficaciously as the depression of their staple product—was Bacon's civil war in 1676. During this formidable insurrection, Jamestown, the capital of Virginia, was burned by the popular party, and never again rose.

A year or two later, on the restoration of order, the assembly attempted the desperate expedient of entirely suspending the tobacco cultivation for a year, to give time for the stock on hand to be exhausted. The act was negatived by the crown out of regard, of course, to its revenues. The colonists, however, formed an association to enforce the act, despite the veto, by destroying all tobacco planted within the period of interdiction. The authorities interfered, and the excitement rose again nearly to the point of rebellion, but was subdued by some vigorous action on the part of the government. Independence, even, was at this time within the contemplation of the Virginians, who were becoming quite as disloyal as the New Englanders, whose turbulence they had formerly contrasted, as a basis for favors to themselves, with their own quiet and dutiful deportment.

Another act passed at this time by the Virginian assembly, aimed to promote the condensation into towns of the scattered population of the colony, for the purpose of introducing the business of manufacturing, in order to relieve the public distress by a variation of pursuit. Although this precise policy had in the earlier days of the colony been warmly encouraged by the English government and the old proprietary, as the means of lessening the expenditure upon them, and of making the plantation sooner remunerative, the scheme was now disrelished in England as calculated to injure their own manufactures, and Charles promptly negatived this act also. There would indeed have been little objection to manufactures of a certain sort, which England could not make, but the design of the colonists went beyond this point. Manufactures beside would not pay the revenue derived to the crown from tobacco, and it was therefore preferred that Virginia should continue absorbed in the culture of the weed which the first Charles and his father had endeavored to suppress; such species of rough manufacture as America could undertake, beneficially to England, being left to the northern colonies, which lacked the advantages of soil enjoyed by those of the south. The defeat of their scheme added much to the irritation of the Virginians, and was, no doubt, a means of essential injury. The forcible formation of towns would indeed have been impolitic, neither was Virginia in a proper state to attempt manufactures as a leading pursuit; the cultivation of the soil was then as now her natural and best resource. Yet, unquestionably, the colony was quite as able and felt quite as much of a necessity for the introduction of some kinds of manufacture as New England, and the withdrawal of a portion of its planters from the over-crowded production of tobacco, for which the market was then very limited, compared to its present capacity, would certainly have not only afforded a present relief, but would have permanently advanced all the other interests of the colony.

According to Governor Berkeley, the importation of slaves into Virginia, for the seven years preceding 1671, amounted to but two or three cargoes. The number of negro slaves, in 1673, he estimated at 2,000, in a population of 40,000.

The amount of customs derived in England from tobacco, imported from Virginia in 1676, was £185,000.

Maryland, in this decennial, was in the enjoyment of internal tranquillity, generally, and was progressing in commercial and other prosperity.

The Carolinas. The northern province had been settled just about 1663, and the southern colony was formed in 1670. The early emigrants were mostly from Barbadoes and New York. In 1671, a number of slaves were brought to South Carolina, from Barbadoes, by the governor, Sir John Yeamans, slave-labor being thus introduced from the outset. This official was removed from his post, in 1672, on a charge of carrying on all the little trade of the colony, using the company's means, for his own private advantage.

The progress of these colonies, especially of the northern ones, was slow. The aristocratic constitution devised by John Locke was set up over both of them, in 1670, and remained in partial operation about twenty years, being all the while in extremely ill favor with the settlers. Both their interests and those of the proprietors were injured by the attempt to establish privileged orders, and by the excessive taxation, and the heavy restrictions upon trade.

The dissatisfaction of North Carolina reached the point of insurrection in 1677. The immediate occasion of the outbreak was, the attempt to enforce the revenue laws imposed by or under authority of this constitution, for the benefit of the proprietors, against a vessel from New England. The people took up arms in support of the smuggler, or rather in defence of free-trade, and imprisoned the president and six of his council. For several years thereafter, the government and the trade of the colony, was under the popular management, and tranquillity prevailed.

In 1680, the town of CHARLESTON was founded, and was immediately declared the capital of South Carolina. During the first year, thirty metropolitan dwellings were erected. A war with the Indians in that colony occurred at the same time, lasting a year. A price was set on Indian prisoners, by the colony, and many of them were shipped to the West Indies, and sold there as slaves.

THE WEST. The French in Canada, having of late become quite prosperous in regard to trade, agriculture, and population, were pushing their researches into the far West, in order to extend their fur trade, and to be beforehand with the English in the occupation of that vast region. They saw and determined to improve the immense advantages of trade offered by the grand Lake system, connecting with their own splendid river, the St. Lawrence. Advantages so palpable, so easily availed of, in their situation, could indeed have been scarcely neglected. The small-pox occurring among the Indians connected with them, in 1670, swept away with its destructive wing above half the numbers of these tribes, and for a while, in a great measure suspended the trade; but the French still pursued their schemes. In 1670, they ascended the Lakes as far as Michigan, and erected Fort Detroit, as a trading station, the only one, except that at Michilimackinack, existing in the whole West, at the site of the present city of that name. The position mid-way on the Lake extension, and contiguous to the great regions of Ohio and Indiana, was exceedingly well chosen for its purpose. It would seem indeed to have required little penetration to discern that whichever power should gain final possession of the West, that point, or one near, would be covered by a large city.

In 1672, Fort Frontenac, now Kingston, at the union of Ontario and St. Lawrence, and the first post established upon the Lake, was erected both as

a trading station, and as a means of overawing the Iroquois, of New York, and other tribes thereabouts. The same year, Father Marquette and M. Joliet, a merchant of Quebec, were sent to examine the resources of the upper region, and if possible to reach the great *Mississippi* river, heard of from the Indians. They proceeded in a canoe up the St. Lawrence, and through Lakes Ontario, Erie, St. Clair, Huron, and Michigan, to Green Bay. The next year they pushed up Fox river, emptying into that bay, nearly to its head. Proceeding thence about a league by land to the upper waters of the Wisconsin river, they sailed downward, until their little canoe floated upon the waters of the Mississippi. It was considered that by ascending the stream the passage to China and the East might be effected, and that its lower terminus communicated with the other ocean, through the Gulf of Mexico. They took the downward course as the easiest, and passing the Ohio and Missouri mouths, reached the Arkansas, nearly two-thirds of the way from the Wisconsin to the embouchure of the Mississippi. Here they found the Indians possessed of some European articles, which they considered rightly must have been obtained by trade, at some not far distant point, if not here, with either the Mexican Spaniards or the Virginian English. The provisions of the adventurers being nearly exhausted, they returned with much difficulty against the strong tide, and reached Lake Michigan at Chicago, by way of the river Illinois.

The Mississippi was now neglected, until 1678, when the famous LA SALLE, who had gone to France to obtain aid in its exploration, returned, and at once set out with the utmost enthusiasm upon his undertaking. He thought, as a matter of certainty, that the great chain of lakes, or rivers running from them, must afford the means of a western passage to the South Sea, and consequently to China and India. To verify this belief was his grand object. On Lake Ontario he constructed a barge of ten tons, "the first ship that ever sailed on that fresh-water sea," and proceeded to Niagara, accompanied by Tonti, and Father Hennepin, worthy co-adventurers. Here he inclosed a small spot on the New York side, with palisades, and remained there for the winter, to attend to the fur-trade. A stronger fortification was afterward erected at this trading station, (the fourth within the range of the Lakes,) and the present American fort occupies its site. As his vessel could not pass the falls, La Salle built another on Lake Erie, in 1679, called the "Griffin," and proceeded through the other Lakes to Green Bay, where he established another, the sixth French trading station to the Lakes, at St. Joseph's river. Here he loaded his little vessel with furs, and sent her back, awaiting her return, but she was never again heard of. In December he proceeded westward to the Illinois, and down that river, erecting another fort at or near the present town of Peoria, in the center of Illinois State, which he called *Creve-Cœur*, the Broken-Hearted, in allusion to his misfortunes in the loss of the Griffin, and from the mutinous temper of his men. Here he remained till March, 1680, and then returned to Canada, for men and funds, Hennepin meantime passing up the Mississippi, to St. Anthony's Falls, and returning by way of the Wisconsin. The Mississippi had thus been explored from its source to the river Arkansas.

OUTWARD AFFAIRS OF THE COLONIES. A treaty was effected at Madrid, in 1670, between England and Spain, explanatory of the American relations of those powers, as regulated by the last general treaty of peace; and from this exclusive reference to America, it being the first European treaty of that

kind, it has usually been known as the *American Treaty*. Some difficulties had arisen between these nations, regarding the trade of their colonies, the English bucaneeering in the West Indies and the logwood colony of Honduras. It was stipulated that each should retain its present possessions in America, and that no Commerce should thereafter be carried on between one nation and the colonies of the other, nor between their respective ports in America, unless either king should see fit to grant future permission therefor in regard to his own dominions. The vessels of either might enter the colonial ports of the other, under stress of weather, on account of accident, or to escape the pursuit of pirates, and for these causes only, and when so entered, should be well received, protected, and allowed to purchase supplies. If three or four vessels came together, they were to inform the governor of the place of the reason of their entry, and to depart at his order. The protection which the bucaneeers had enjoyed under the English flag and commission, for preying upon Spanish Commerce, (granted in period of war but still used,) was withdrawn.

This treaty had not the effect of cutting off trade entirely, as intended, between the English and Spanish colonies, though of course it increased the difficulties of its prosecution. In one mode it furnished that trade some additional security, by reducing the danger to be feared by the bucaneeers, who, preferring the robbery of the Spaniards, both for its superior value and their enmity as Englishmen to that nation, were careless in peace, when all were their enemies, upon whom they preyed. While England chose to take no decided part against them, their profession was still sufficiently enticing to retain a large number in its pursuit. But as her active hostility, united to that of Spain, and other nations having possessions or Commerce in that region, was too powerful to withstand, they were now mostly obliged to seek a new calling. The treaty, by its general terms and its silence in regard to the particular case of Honduras, was considered on the part of the English, to confirm them in the possession of the territory occupied there, and to establish the right, wherever before used, of cutting and exporting logwood in that quarter. A large number of the pirates, therefore, on finding their occupation gone, considered this an eligible point of settlement, and affording the means of a lucrative pursuit, and following their former associates thither, much enlarged the settlements. There were engaged, at this time, in the exportation of logwood, cut by the settlers here, from England, Jamaica, and Massachusetts, about one hundred sail of ships annually. Sir Thomas Lynch, the governor of Jamaica, stated in 1670, that this settlement in Yucatan, "annually increased his majesty's customs and the national commerce, more than any other of his majesty's colonies."

The Spanish government, however, had never recognized the English as having any legitimate possession or occupation in these parts, regarding the logwood cutters as a few interlopers who might easily be expelled at any time, and not worthy of being the object of any serious negotiation. They had no intention to concede any such privilege as the English assumed to have been granted. When, therefore, the logwood settlements had become sufficiently important to merit attention, and the claims of the English were heard, Spain resolved to dispossess the intruders. She began in 1674, by seizing the English ships found near the Campeachy coast, laden with logwood, but did not directly disturb the settlers, until 1680, when they were forcibly expelled, and the Spanish dominion fully reclaimed. It was, how-

ever, only a few months before the ejected cutters had effected a re-employment in their old positions, and entered again upon the business as briskly as before.

Parliament considering the colonies now fit objects of taxation, determined to impose customs duties on all their outward trade with other parts than England. An act passed in 1672 provided that all vessels which may lawfully trade in the plantations, taking on board any commodities and not giving bond and proper security to unlade them in England, shall pay certain specified rates on sugars, tobacco, ginger, cocoa-nut, indigo, logwood, fustic, and cotton-wool. Tobacco alone, of these articles, was any considerable product of the colonies within the United States, the rest of the act applying mainly to the West Indies and Honduras. Tonnage and poundage duties had been imposed, and extended to every dominion of the crown, at the Restoration, but this was the first act levying a regular tariff of duties upon the colonies, and implying the establishment in America of a customs system.

The exclusive African companies, for the importation of negro-slaves into America, a few of which came to the continental colonies, while the vast bulk went to the West Indies, had been ruined in England, by war and misconduct. The fourth and last was established in 1672, the king and his brother and successor of York being stockholders. The amount of capital was fixed at \$111,000. The great importation of slaves into the West Indies, effecting a rapid development of the islands there belonging to England, correspondingly enlarged the natural theater of trade, the wealth and importance of the continental provinces. Barbadoes, which had begun to export sugar in 1646, only, required in 1676, for the exportation of that article of her produce, 400 vessels, averaging 150 tons each, a total of 60,000 tons. The growth of the West India dominions of other powers, afforded also great advantages to those colonies, in the enlargement of the means of a most profitable contraband trade.

FRENCH COLONIES. The progress of the French colonies in America, at this time, formed a striking contrast to that of the English. Although Canada was made the basis of such extensive aims in North America, little beyond mere exploration and the fur-trade was effected. Canada itself was prosperous only by comparison with her former condition, and was still a weak province. The West India settlements were expanding, but still the great West India Company had by its bad management, and the dishonesty of its agents, become inextricably involved. The government, therefore, in 1674, assumed its debts, amounting to 3,523,000 livres, (\$634,140,) reimbursed its capital, of 1,287,185 livres, (\$231,693,) and resumed proprietorship of all the French-American colonies. The charter of the Dutch West India Company expiring in 1674, a renewal of its privileges was granted.

OTHER COTEMPORARY EVENTS. The English settled in the Bahamas Islands, and the Danes St. Thomas, W. I., in 1672. The Spaniards, after many efforts, in 1679, conquered and settled Old California.

The English, as well as the French were at this period in search of the *Northwest Passage*. Captain Gillam had been dispatched on this object, in 1667, by a private company in London, this being the first attempt from England since 1633, and had opened the first trade of any account at Hudson's Bay. The prospect of profit thus opened in that direction, led to the formation, in 1689 of the *Hudson's Bay Company*, an association of lords,

gentlemen, and merchants, with a capital of £10,500. In 1670, the company sent out Gillam again on a voyage of trade and discovery.

The debate upon the *freedom of the seas*, was still going on in Europe, the antagonist disputants being Holland and England. The writers of the former still maintained the old and invincible principle sustained by their statesmen of former times—the complete right of all nations to make use of the great highways provided for them by nature; while the English controversialists upheld, with the usual tenacity of error, the claim of broad exclusions and selfish guardianships.

ART. III.—COMMERCIAL CITIES AND TOWNS OF THE UNITED STATES.

NO. XXXVII.

PITTSBURGH.

HER MANUFACTURES, COMMERCE, AND RAILROAD POSITION.

In the article published in the April number of the *Merchants' Magazine* we ventured the opinion, and endeavored to give substantial ground for it, that Pittsburgh was destined by nature, with the aid of capital and art, for three great purposes: 1st, as a manufacturing city; 2d, as a supplier of coal for all time to large portions of the North, South, and West; and, 3d, as a distributor to the West of the goods, manufactures, and merchandise of the East and foreign countries, and a distributor to the East of the produce, stock, and industrial products of the West.

This opinion, we think, is fairly, logically, and necessarily deduced from a consideration of the various elements which have always built up wealthy and powerful commercial and manufacturing districts; from a careful survey of her geographical position, climate, relations to the West, East, North, and South; her numerous and cheap water communications; and from the nature and varied character of the surrounding country, and the wonderful subsoil and surface resources for which, when fully developed, she will be the outlet and beneficiary.

We have already, at some length, considered the first two branches of our subject, and after having given some account of the amount and variety of her present multifarious products, we will address ourselves to the discussion of the last branch.

And here, at the outstart, it is proper to observe that it is cause for regret that this city, or its merchants, have never deemed it necessary or useful to collect, record, and statedly publish exact and reliable statistics of her imports and exports; the establishment, extension, condition, and variety of her manufactures and Commerce; the consumption of raw material, and the kind, quality, and distribution of the various converted fabrics. It is by the periodical and persevering collection of such valuable statistics that public attention is directed and influenced, that population and capital are attracted, and that the full measure of a city's wealth and power is widely known and appreciated. The absence of such a system, while it makes the task of a volunteer more arduous, at the same time renders it more necessary. We are glad, therefore, to be able to announce the late organization of a Merchants'

Exchange, one of the earliest and most important duties of which will be to gather for publication important commercial and industrial statistics. It is our desire to present only a fair, moderate, and, we think, reliable account of the various branches of Pittsburgh manufacture.

Considering the abundance and variety of raw material, the many facilities for a cheap conversion into the merchantable product, the proximity and requirements of an ever-increasing and ever more accessible market, it is difficult to account for the neglect of many branches of manufacture there, which, it must be obvious to the slowest comprehension, must of necessity yield a speedy, sure, and very fair return. Capital is sadly needed, and *must* come from abroad. Pittsburghers see clearly and know well the advantages for and the profits resulting from the establishment of certain branches, yet such have been the business additions and money requirements caused by the completion of railroads, and the great increase of western demand, that every available dollar is actively employed. It is patent to all that present manufactures, multiplied in number and varied in amount as they are, will be as nothing to what there will be in twenty or thirty years. We have already mentioned the peculiar fitness there is in establishing locomotive, passenger, and freight car factories, for railroad bar and railroad supplying factories, for woolen and flour mills, for factories of wood-screws, heavy and fine cutlery and hardware, copper and brass wire and small work for carriages, wagons, &c., and in fact establishments of every description which require chiefly the employment of metals or wood, which are costly in manufacture, and which need near and good markets and cheap and speedy conveyance thither. If some of the many companies in New England, whose small dividends have lately been exposed in the public prints, would change the locality and direction of their investments, it would most assuredly be a profitable change.

There are now in Pittsburgh and immediate vicinity, 20 rolling mills, having 176 puddling furnaces, 121 heating furnaces, and 253 nail machines, consuming annually 82,500 tons of pig metal, 16,350 tons of blooms and scrap, and 6,275,000 bushels of coal; producing 395,000 kegs of nails and spikes, and an aggregate product of 80,800 tons of merchantable iron and nails, employing \$4,775,000 of invested and working capital, and 2,720 hands.

Included in the above is one small rolling mill at Brownsville, which is owned and has a warehouse in Pittsburgh; one mill for rolling "imitation Russia" sheet-iron, situated on the Monongahela, which has an agency for the sale of its products at Pittsburgh; one very extensive forging mill, which rolls much of the iron it consumes, and three mills which chiefly produce spring, American blister, and plow steel, elliptic springs, hammered axles, vices, anvils, cultivator teeth, &c., &c., and one T-rail mill, consuming 9,000 tons of metal per annum.

The demand for iron products of every variety has been of late unprecedentedly large, and notwithstanding the excessive cost of pig metal and blooms, the various mills and factories are overpressed with work, and all the rolling mills, with but one temporary exception, are running "double turn," as it is called, or night and day. The quality and finish of the iron and nails manufactured excels most that are imported, and is fully as good as any that are made at home. From 20 to 30 puddling furnaces will be added during the coming summer, and a number of nail machines erected; and if Congress is not again troubled by the prosperity of American skill and in-

dustry, and is content to let alone the present *ad valorem* tariff, which, by an unforeseen combination of accidents, has ceased to work harm, the iron trade will most probably continue active and prosperous for years to come. Most of the furnaces in Pennsylvania which were sold out by the sheriff on account of the paralyzing effect of a competition between foreign pauper and American free and well-paid labor, are now again in blast. Although not exactly a Pittsburgh interest, yet, as much of the stock is owned there, and it is situated near it, it may not be out of place to mention in this connection a mammoth rail mill which will go into operation about the first of May. The chartered capital is \$1,000,000. The company own thousands of acres of timber, coal, and iron ore lands. They have eight coke furnaces, with capacity to turn out 720 tons of pig iron per week; have 60 puddling furnaces, 5 scrap furnaces, and 12 rail pile furnaces; they have 4 "squeezers," run by separate engines of 80-horse power, 4 sets of rolls run by separate engines of 150-horse power, one engine of 150 horse power for rail mill, and a fourth engine of 60-horse power for machine shop. The machinery is of the most perfect and ponderous character, and when in full operation will be able to turn out 120 tons of rails every 24 hours, which can be cheaply transported either East or West. This, we believe, is the largest rail mill in the world.

There is one copper smelting establishment, consuming 1,000 tons of Lake Superior ore, and producing over 500 tons of refined metal in the form of "cake" and ingots. In connection there is a copper rolling mill, producing annually 350 tons brazier's sheets, 25 tons locomotive "flue strips," and 40 tons of copper-pressed bottoms, all which, at the present prices of copper, would be worth \$700 cash per net ton of 2,000 lbs. An extensive brass foundry has just been added for the manufacture of brass metal and sheets, but no estimate of course can yet be made of the annual yield. Pittsburgh is very largely interested in the copper business in all its varieties and relations. Her citizens claim to be the pioneers in Lake Superior copper mining. They, in connection with a few Boston capitalists, owned and worked the first mine, the celebrated "Cliff," which is now yielding such enormous quantities of copper. Many of the companies have been formed from Pittsburgh capitalists; and the appended table will show how many mines are, in great part, owned or controlled there:—

Company.	No. of shares.	Present value per share.	Amt. held in Pittsburgh.	Total.
Pittsburgh and Boston Mining Co.	6,000	\$145	2,000	\$290,000
North American	10,000	75	7,000	525,000
National	10,000	80	8,000	90,000
Ohio Trap Rock	6,000	28	4,500	126,000
North Western	10,000	18	4,000	72,000
Ridge	10,000	6 50	7,500	48,250
Meadow	10,000	4	4,500	18,000
Adventure	10,000	8	4,000	12,000
Iron City	10,000	2	7,500	15,000
Fire Steel	10,000	2 25	8,000	18,000
Colling	10,000	8	9,000	27,000
Eureka	10,000	1	5,000	5,000
Pittsburgh	20,000	1 50	15,000	22,500
Arctic	10,000	1	6,000	6,000
Bluff	10,000	1	7,000	7,000
Pittsburgh and Isle Royal	10,000	4	8,000	32,000
Held in Pittsburgh				\$1,818,750
Held by Pittsburghers in other cities, about				418,250
Total, in round numbers				\$1,732,000

There is in Pittsburgh an establishment called "Eagle Steel Works," manufacturing cast steel of all varieties, bar, shear, and sheet. They have three converting furnaces, five heating furnaces, and 18 melting furnaces. They employ about 60 hands, many of them imported from England, and consume annually 750 tons of iron, one-third of which is Swedish. The steel produced by these works has been repeatedly tested, and is found fully equal to the best English imported. Their extensive file factory has been abandoned, but many file shops are now conducted by their former workmen.

There are, as nearly as can be ascertained, 38 foundries which cast iron. They may be divided into two classes, those which make chiefly steam-engines, and those which make hollow ware, grates, and stoves, heavy and light machinery, car wheels, mill gearing, iron fronts and railing, wagon boxes, sadirons, school furniture, plow castings, decorative and fancy work, and innumerable other useful articles. Of the former there are 9; some very extensively engaged in this branch, while others partake of the business of both classes. In the manufacture of steam-engines they consume yearly 3,200 tons wrought iron, 9,250 tons of pig, employ 640 hands, and produce 120 steam-engines every year. Net capital, \$545,000. Five of these engine shops have boiler yards attached, producing not less than 250 boilers annually. There are besides five more boiler yards in the city, carried on as an independent business. They manufacture 240 boilers per annum, weighing on an average 5,000 lbs. each, employ 130 hands, and have a capital of \$125,000. Of the second class of foundries there are 29, consuming yearly 19,275 tons of pig, employing 825 hands, and having a net capital of \$775,000. Many of these are very extensive, manufacturing the heaviest mill gearing, cotton and sugar mills and presses, copper mining machinery, railroad castings, chilled wheels, shafts, machines for punching, drilling, and planing iron, &c., &c. One owns the patent for drilled rollers, and is the exclusive provider for the whole United States. Another owns the right for Pennsylvania and Maryland to manufacture Fisk's metallic burial cases, which will employ a large number of skillful hands; three have, in connection with their foundries, freight-car factories, and produce 450 per annum; two or three are exclusively engaged in making cotton machinery, and a like number in making grates and stoves; two make locks, latches, scales, and malleable castings. The heaviest establishment of all is the Fort Pitt Works, and deserves a somewhat special mention. Besides their regular heavy and elaborate products, they have done much work for government. Some years since they built two iron steamships of 400 tons burden each, the "Geo. M. Bibb," submarine propeller for the Gulf of Mexico, and the "Jefferson" revenue cutter, which was taken apart and transported to Lake Ontario, and is, we believe, still living and in active service. From 1842 to 1847 there were cast, bored, and mounted at these works 633 cannon, weighing 1,787 tons, and 22,189 shot and shell for cannon and howitzers, weighing 541 tons. During the years 1851, 1852, and 1853 they cast and bored 76 cannon, weighing 305 tons, and are now engaged on a government order for 21 guns of the heaviest caliber, called "Columbiades," having a ten-inch bore, and throwing a 124-pound shot. Lieut. Rodman, of the army, and for some time connected with this establishment, is the inventor of a new and important principle in the casting of ordnance. The cannon is cast hollow, and a constant and ever-renewed stream of water forced in, thus cooling the interior first, instead of, as was the old plan, casting solid, and allowing the outside to cool first. The effects are more equal strain, and more density and tough-

ness where such qualities are most needed. Cannon cast by both methods have been subjected to most powerful tests, and the result has been that those cast on the new principle bear five and six times the number of charges of those cast by the usual method. In 1853 these works consumed 2,225 tons pig iron, 1,000 tons wrought iron, employed 280 hands, and produced 10 blast cylinders, 10 large, first-class steam-engines, 300 tons boilers, and 150 freight cars, besides other important work. There have been built also at other works two steam revenue cutters, one steam frigate, one submerged propeller for Lieut. Hunter, and one large river steamer, all of iron. Of the fates or condition of these various steamers we have no knowledge. The amount of pig iron, blooms, and scraps consumed in Pittsburgh would be, from the foregoing estimate, which is as close as can be arrived at—

Steam-engine foundries.....tons.	9,250
All other foundries	19,275
Rolling mills	98,850
Total.....	127,375

It would be impossible to make any estimate even approximating the truth of the amount of wrought iron consumed by the various factories of Pittsburgh, but it would rise to many thousand tons.

There are in Pittsburgh ten flint or crystal-glass factories, with fifteen furnaces, all in full operation night and day, engaged in the manufacture of all varieties of table and ornamental glassware, druggists' jars, tinctures, &c. They have a net capital of \$650,000, employ 600 hands, and consume annually 600,000 bushels coal, 400 cords wood, 650 tons lead, 550 tons soda and pearl ash, 250 tons fire clay, 1,500,000 feet boards, 600 tons of straw and hay, and 1,300 tons of sand.

Fourteen window-glass furnaces, with a net capital of \$400,000, employing 600 men and boys, consuming 725,000 bushels coal, 5,510 cords wood, 4,550,000 feet lumber, 1,750 tons soda, and producing annually 145,000 boxes glass, worth near \$580,000. Included in the above are six furnaces situated at various distances from Pittsburgh on the Monongahela, but which are chiefly owned, their business transacted, and their products sold at Pittsburgh. The products of these latter furnaces generally go under the denomination of "country glass," and are inferior in quality to what is called, in contradistinction, "city glass." Some of the window-glass factories are at present making glass of great beauty and size, also fine varieties of plate, Boston, concave, and show-window glass.

Eleven phial and bottle factories, with a net capital of \$260,000, employing 650 men and boys, consuming 275,000 bushels coal, 5,280 cords wood, 2,750,000 feet of lumber, and 880 tons soda; and producing annually 176,000 boxes of every variety of black and green bottles, flasks, phials, &c., worth, at present rates, \$385,000. There are 8 window glass and 1 bottle factory, which, being at present out of blast, are not included in the estimate.

There are 5 cotton factories, running 29,300 spindles, 671 looms, and consuming yearly 6,350,000 lbs. cotton, 375,000 bushels coal, 120,000 lbs. starch, and 10,000 gallons oil; employing 1,350 hands, chiefly girls, and producing annually 7,794,000 yards cloth, 5,594,000 lbs. cloth, yarn, carpet chains, &c., of value equal to \$1,281,000. About 200 looms will be added during the coming summer, which would make the annual consumption of cotton altogether equal to 16,000 bales.

There are 2 very extensive establishments manufacturing locks, latches, coffee, and paint mills, counter, hatch, hay, and railroad scales, malleable castings, &c., &c. Capital invested, \$250,000 : consume 1,600 tons pig metal, besides many tons of copper and zinc, in the manufacture of brass for keys, lock facings, &c., and a large amount of wrought-iron ; employ 400 hands, and produce goods annually to the amount of \$450,000, which are distributed from Mexico, on the southwest, to Nova Scotia, on the northeast, including both Canadas.

There are 18 forges and heavy blacksmithing works, many of them using steam and forging-hammers, consuming 15,000 tons of bloom and wrought-iron yearly ; employing 350 hands, and a net capital of \$400,000, and manufacturing large quantities of railroad axles, hog chains, anchors, chain cables, cranks, shafts for steamboats, and sugar mills, tobacco screws, bridge work, and heavy jobbing for steamboats and railroads.

There are 6 establishments, all employing steam, and of a largely increased custom and capacity every year, which manufacture in all axes, hatchets, shovels, spades, hoes, hay and manure forks, mill and cross-cut saws, picks, mattocks, &c. They have in all a net capital of \$200,000 ; consume 200 tons of best steel, 2,500 tons of wrought-iron, and employ 300 hands. Of the two which make axes, one will produce 12,000 dozen, and the other 2,000 dozen yearly.

There is another factory making vices alone, and still another making solid box-vices, hammered axles, crowbars, sledges, hammers, timber, mill, cotton, and tobacco screws, &c.

There are 5 separate establishments for founding brass, which among them make bells, every variety of common and patent cocks, metallic packing, locomotive castings and moldings, decorative works, &c.

Eight more or less extensive factories for working copper, making copper tubing, pipes, vessels, engine and steamboat work, &c.

There are several establishments which are extensively engaged in making Britannia, japanned, sheet-iron, and tin ware, and which send their products throughout the West and South, and to the lakes.

Also, one large steam-shop for making heavy tools and machines, such as planing machines and turning lathes for dressing iron, punching and drilling machines, slide rests, &c.

There are 4 large factories for making fire and burglar proof safes, heavy locks, vault doors, and iron shutters, which employ about 150 hands, have a net capital of \$160,000, and, beside their jobbing work, make annually 1,600 safes, which, at an average value of \$60, would be worth \$96,000. These safes are extensively distributed throughout the West, have been repeatedly tested, and are reputed to be as good as any made elsewhere.

There are 2 rifle-barrel factories, consuming 75 tons of best and toughest iron, and making, at an average of 12 lbs. for each barrel, 12,500 per annum.

There are 4 whitelead factories, with capacity to produce 240,000 kegs of lead every year, worth, at current prices, \$500,000. Also, about 70 tons of litharge, and a large amount of redlead.

There are 2 soda factories in Pittsburgh, and 1 in Tarentum, near by, which sends its products there for sale. The largest of these has an invested capital of \$80,000, employs 100 hands, consumes yearly 18,000 tons of material, coal, limestone, salt, sulphur, &c., and manufactures 60 barrels or 10

tons daily, 1,500 tons yearly. As over 3,000 tons of soda are consumed in Pittsburgh yearly, it does not send much of its product abroad.

There are 3 linseed oil mills using steam, consuming 30,000 bushels of seed per annum, at a cost of \$1 40 per bushel, and yielding 1,500 barrels of oil, which is almost entirely consumed in the home market.

There are in all, without including 6 situated away some little distance, but which transact their business at Pittsburgh, 38 breweries, 17 of which employ steam. The net capital of the 38 would fully amount to \$650,000, manufacturing, at the very lowest calculation, 90,000 barrels of ales and beers in this proportion—50,000 of ale and porter, 25,000 of lager beer, and 15,000 of light common beer. They consume annually 300,000 bushels of barley, and 1,000 bales, or 200,000 lbs. of hops. In addition to this product in liquid, 100,000 bushels of malt are made, and in great part sold in the Eastern market.

There are 3 flouring mills, with 19 run of stone, consuming 1,800,000 bushels of wheat per annum, and manufacturing 360,000 barrels of flour, which has a most excellent reputation, both in this country and at Liverpool. Capital, \$300,000. The want of communications by which wheat in great quantities could be procured and the manufactured product transmitted to markets, has hitherto confined the number of mills to 3; but as Pittsburgh is posed right in the heart of the most magnificent wheat region in the country, as railroads passing through fruitful wheat districts are coming there, as power is very cheap, and as there is a chance of 5 Eastern markets, all nearly equidistant, and all quickly and cheaply reached on the completion of various lines of railroad now in process of building, that place would seem to be peculiarly fitted for the erection of steam flouring mills; and doubtless in the course of five years the present number will be quadrupled.

There are 5 mills for the extensive manufacture of crackers and pilot or navy bread; 3 employing steam, and 2 not. The aggregate yearly consumption would be at least 16,000 bbls. of flour, and the product would rise above 40,000 bbls. The water, bran, and soda crackers, sweet and butter biscuit, made by these mills have a wide celebrity, and are largely distributed both East and West.

There are at present in operation 7 steam tanneries, manufacturing into every variety of common and patent leather, 25,000 hides yearly, amounting in value to \$212,000. The department of japanning is a new feature in the leather trade there, which, from a small commencement, now amounts to nearly one-half of all the leather manufactured, with a rapidly increasing demand. In addition, there are a number of smaller concerns, some that manufacture sheep, morocco, and calf skins, to the value of \$70 or \$80,000 more. Pittsburgh, as a market for the country-tanned leather, is increasing daily, offering to country tanners the most promising inducements, which bid fair to make her a chief Western center for leather and hides.

There are 13 planing mills operated by steam, with a capital of \$260,000, producing flooring boards, &c., equal to over 10,000,000 feet annually. This planed and dressed lumber goes as far West as St. Louis, and as far South as New Orleans.

Thirteen steam saw-mills, which, at an average yield of 1,500,000 feet, would produce nearly 20,000,000 feet of sawed lumber per annum. Pittsburgh is now the cheapest lumber market, for all varieties, in the whole United States; and every railroad which will be built through Western

Pennsylvania will largely increase her supply and variety. The lumber trade of the Alleghany is now immense. The whole valley which is watered by that river and its tributaries is covered for hundreds of miles with the densest and most luxuriant forests, chiefly of white and yellow pine, spruce, hemlock, and poplar, with a fair interspersement of ash and hickory. When this region is fully cleared of its almost limitless and valuable surface growth, it will become one of the most exuberantly fruitful districts in our country—distinguished as that country is for its fertile soil and prodigal production—and offers very many inducements to settlers from the East and from foreign countries.

Land, on account of its being hitherto shut out from markets and so closely covered with forests, is ridiculously cheap; the country is beautiful, and the climate healthful and temperate.

The Alleghany Valley, Sunbury, and Erie, Warren and Franklin, and Erie and Pittsburgh roads, which will shortly be built, will intersect and lay open the iron ore, limestone, coal, and lumber stores of this magnificent region throughout its whole extent, and cannot fail to cover it at no distant day with a crowded, thrifty, and industrious population. The Alleghany Valley road alone will largely increase the lumber trade of Pittsburgh, and will also convey much of it to New York and Eastern Pennsylvania. A few lumbermen alone in North Ridgeway township offer, if freights be favorable, to send over 10,000,000 feet. The amount of sawed lumber coming down the Alleghany and its tributaries, the Clarion, French Creek, Tionista, Conewango, and others, is estimated at from 150 to 175,000,000 feet annually, chiefly white pine, 200,000,000 pine shingles, 30,000,000 lath, and 20,000,000 cubic feet of square timber. The lumber rafts are prepared at the saw mills, which will number over 200, running from one to eight saws; they are then floated down with the spring freshet. About one-third of them are stayed and distributed at Pittsburgh; the remaining two-thirds are sold to the different towns and cities on the Ohio, as far down as the mouth.

The Valley of the Monongahela, which is now being opened throughout its entire extent by the Connellsville Railroad and by slack-water navigation, grows a different and more solid character of timber, chiefly the tougher varieties of oak, hickory, ash, cherry, poplar, locust, and bird's-eye maple; so that almost every variety of wood used for manufacturing can be obtained at Pittsburgh at little more than half the cost which its scarcity compels elsewhere. This is a very important consideration in the establishment of such branches of manufacture as consume large quantities of wood, and must, as soon as Pittsburgh resources and advantages become better and more widely known, attract there many large workshops in branches of production not yet conducted.

The time appears to be rapidly passing away when peculiar favor should attach to a product because it is of Eastern make; and Western merchants are beginning to find that they are as well served nearer home. The saving in freight and in cost of construction of very many Eastern products, such as carriages, wagons, cars, locomotives, &c., &c., when they can be built just as well and cheaper, and when they can be immediately launched on a very cheap water route, *must* eventually lead to the establishment of many varieties of manufacture which are now found nowhere west of the Alleghany Mountains. Among the branches which consume much wood, are—

1st. The cabinet furniture business, which is carried on extensively at

Pittsburgh, and forms an important interest amounting annually to over \$500,000, and employing 420 hands. There are very large establishments of the most complete description, with all the modern appliances of steam, in the construction of common furniture and chairs. Their principal markets are Ohio, Pennsylvania, Virginia, Kentucky, and Tennessee. There are at least 15 smaller establishments, which, although they produce largely, yet have a more limited and local market. There are many additional factories, with and without steam, which consume an immense amount of wood, and which distribute their products throughout the West, as well as W. Pennsylvania—barrels, kegs, boxes, tubs, buckets, looking-glass frames, trunks, detached carpentry and joinery work, &c., &c. Details would require entirely too much space.

There are 7 carriage manufacturers who send their products abroad, chiefly to Tennessee and Kentucky. They have a net capital of \$320,000, employ 325 hands, and produce about 1,200 of omnibuses, coaches, carriages, phaetons, barouches, and buggies per year. Many specimens of their fine work, which have been purchased by citizens of Louisville, Nashville, and other Western cities, have given great satisfaction, and are fully equal in style, finish, appearance, and endurance, to the best of Eastern manufacture. This branch of business, on account of cheapness of iron, wood, conveyance, &c., is destined to a large increase.

There are 2 very extensive wagon factories, where are manufactured every year an almost incredible number of light and heavy wagons of every description, drays, carts, trucks, &c. Most of their products go far West—many of the wagon and timber wheels to Texas and the South. The larger of these establishments supplied our army while in Mexico with most of the camp and baggage wagons, gun-carriages, &c.

There are at present only 2 pork and packing establishments, but these capable of the slaughter and curing of 75,000 hogs per season. The slaughter and packing during the last season was small, owing (besides other causes) to want of confidence in prices; and over 60,000 head that should have been packed there, were sent to various points East. For the same reasons which have operated against the establishment of so many new branches of business there, viz., the absence of Western and Eastern communications in every direction, this great department of Western trade has as yet been trifling; but there are now indications that it will be in future a very prominent branch. There are certainly many advantages to induce large investments. The climate is in the highest degree favorable; the cost of delivering large numbers of hogs there by the various roads now rapidly being hurried to completion, will be small; and we are credibly informed that hogs can be brought to Pittsburgh from Western Ohio at an expense of only 5 cents per head more than to Cincinnati; cost of handling and transhipment is less than it is at points farther West; salt is nowhere else so cheap; Pittsburgh market is the best for the sale of offal, grease, ribs, feet, &c., and it is a most excellent distributing point, as the cured product can be shipped at all seasons of the year, either by canal or railroad, to various Eastern markets.

There are 21 rectifying distilleries, which prepare for market over 40,000 barrels of whisky per annum; also 1 establishment for the manufacture of alcohol, and 1 of neutral spirits. The main supply of raw whisky, which in times past was obtained from the Monongahela region, is now chiefly derived from the Ohio Valley and Cincinnati, although the product still bears the name of "Monongahela Whisky."

On the Alleghany River and tributaries, and throughout the whole country surrounding Pittsburgh, are situated numerous salt works. As near as can be ascertained, there are now in operation about 40 wells; annual product for the best and most flourishing, about 30,000 bushels; for the least productive, 6,000. Besides these, there are 70 which are at present lying idle. To prove productive, they are bored near a plentiful supply of bituminous coal, of which large quantities are used to evaporate the water and to crystallize the salt. The quality of the salt thus produced is equal to any other, whether obtained at home or abroad, as the annexed analysis by Prof. Booth, of salt taken from the works of Mr. Peterson, in Alleghany County, Penn., will testify :—

Varieties.	Chloride of sodium, or common salt.	Chloride of magnesium.	Muriate of lime.	Sulphate of magnesium, or Epsom salts.	Sulphate of lime, or plaster of Paris.	Impurity, chiefly sand.
Fine salt, Alleghany Co., Pa...	98.87	0.51	0.62	none	trace	trace
Liverpool rock	98.55	0.08	none	0.16	1.21
Turks Island.....	93.85	3.47	none	2.68	little sand

Besides the numerous factories and branches of manufacturing interest enumerated and described somewhat at length above, there are others which may deserve some special mention, without, however, any detail. To wit :—

One factory with over 60 complicated machines, and employing 50 hands, for making blue cut tacks, brads, shoe, clout, and finishing nails, iron and copper rivets, &c. One for making nuts and bolts of all varieties and sizes.

One star candle factory and mill, employing 18 hydraulic presses, for the purpose of expressing from lard the oleine and stearine. Over 10,000 barrels of lard are used annually, the oleine of which is converted into lard oil, and the stearine into star candles.

One which makes all sizes of wrought spikes, small and large rivets, &c. One factory situated at Brighton, but having stock and warehouse at Pittsburgh, for making all sizes of wire, rivets, sieves, safes, &c. Three or four factories of agricultural and gardening implements.

Six paper-mills at Pittsburgh and neighborhood. Six rope-walks for the manufacture of hemp and manilla rope, twine, &c. Three extensive establishments for sawing, cutting, and dressing stone, making burr mill-stones, &c.

One establishment exclusively engaged in making railroad spikes, by a lately patented and wonderfully efficient machine, turning out from 5 to 7 tons of spikes every day. One very large mill for the manufacture of oil-cloth, window shades, &c.

Two chemical works for the manufacture of nitric and sulphuric acid. Two extensive gas works, one in Pittsburgh and one in Alleghany, charging only \$1 80 per 1,000 cubic feet. Three water works, two for Pittsburgh and one for Alleghany.

All of the above employ steam in their operations.

Also, we may pass with a mere mention, many minor establishments, which in the aggregate add much to the value of Pittsburgh products. From 10 to 20 furnaces for the conversion of coal into coke. Factories for woollen goods, woven garments, and crash; for cards used in cotton and woollen machinery; for harness, trunks, riveted hose, and saddlery hardware; for sickles, surgical, dental, and surveying instruments; for earthen,

stone, and yellow Rockingham ware: for fire, building brick, tiles, and marble work; for the manufacture of Chilson's furnaces, and for copperizing iron; for the manufacture of gas and water pipes, chandeliers, oil, lard, and fluid lamps; for bellows, Venetian blinds and shutters, lead pipe—and, finally, yards where are made in large numbers flats, canal, and keel boats, barges, steam tugs, and boating work generally.

Steamboat building, though mentioned last, is one of the most important branches of Pittsburgh manufacture, and in their construction, equipment, and management, employs an immense number of artisans of many different trades. The effect of railroads thus far constructed has been greatly to increase, rather than diminish the river trade. Numerous steamers arrive daily, laden to the guards with the cereals and other produce of the South and West.

Contrary to expectation, and owing to the great demand for river shipment at points on the Western waters, freights are high, steamboats are selling at a greatly advanced price, and the numerous boat builders are driven to the wall with work, and are hotly pressed to fill their orders. Chiefly on account of the great abundance of the required varieties of timber, and of other materials usually employed in building, steamers are built better and cheaper at Pittsburgh and vicinity than at any Western port; and, in consequence, more are built and fitted out there than at any other two or three cities in the West.

For the year 1853, 59 were enrolled on the custom-house books of Pittsburgh; and in 1854, the number of new boats launched, some of them of unusual size, power, and carrying capacity, will rise above 80. The improvements which have of late years attended the construction, the adornment, and the appointments of river steamers, for burden and for passengers, have been numerous and of great value. The very large and powerful boats which have lately been launched as passenger packets between Pittsburgh and Cincinnati, are superb specimens of workmanship, with furniture and decorations of the most gorgeous and elaborate order, and complete in all that can administer comfort or pleasure to the traveler. These splendid floating palaces are over 250 feet in length, have an actual carrying capacity of from 800 to 1,000 tons, cost from \$60,000 to \$80,000 each, and move with great ease and swiftness. A boat is now being built at one of the yards for the St. Louis trade, of 1,080 tons burden by custom-house measurement, but of an actual carrying capacity of full 1,700 tons. This immense boat will cost, finished and equipped, no less than \$80,000. There are other boats now in process of construction, which are designed and built on an entirely new plan, with the purpose of carrying large amounts of freights on very little water. They will have each two wheels at the stern, two powerful double engines, will be of unusual breadth of beam, and so arranged as to carry from 3 to 500 tons on 3 feet of water. If this experiment should prove successful, of which there can be little doubt, it will be of inestimable aid to the Pittsburgh carrying trade in seasons of low water.

Pittsburgh boats are all built on the high-pressure principle, and will average about 300 tons by custom-house measurement, to which fully one-half must be added for actual carrying capacity, making an average of 450 tons each.

Owing to the irregular method by which in this department Western custom-house books are kept, it is almost impossible to arrive at, with any

accuracy, the aggregate *living* steam tonnage of Pittsburgh. The official report on Commerce and Navigation, published by the Treasury Department, for 1852, records the steam tonnage of various Western cities thus :—

	Permanent ste'm ton'ge.		Permanent ste'm ton'ge.
Louisville.....	11,818	St. Louis	32,646
Wheeling	4,280	Pittsburgh	57,782
Cincinnati	10,238	Baltimore (Eastern)	12,764
Chicago	11,993		

This table is manifestly disproportioned and full of error. The amount of steam tonnage registered on the custom-house books at Pittsburgh is—

To June 30, 1853.....	70,268 tons
To January 1, 1854.....	75,505 “

Add one-half for actual carrying capacity..... 113,257 “

Which we understand to be the aggregate steam tonnage of boats originally built and owned there. If, as is the duty of the custom-house officer, the tonnage of boats condemned, sunk, or sold out of the district, were deducted from the above amount, the aggregate tonnage would be very materially reduced.

Our account of Pittsburgh would be incomplete, did we not mention some few of the public edifices which add beauty to the city, give many conveniences to citizens, and many of which serve also as mementoes of the generosity of the benevolent.

There have been lately completed two covered market-houses, which for propriety of design, excellence of arrangement, and general commodiousness, are not surpassed anywhere.

A new custom-house, built in the Greek style, of freestone, with a beautiful post-office and United States court-rooms, and costing \$115,000, has just been occupied, and Pittsburgh importers have their duties levied from their own custom-house.

A United States marine hospital has been finished two years, and is now occupied. Three hospitals, erected and sustained by private charity, have lately gone into operation. A very beautiful house of refuge, capable of lodging with comfort 450 inmates, is now receiving the finishing touches. Excepting a moderate appropriation by the State, this fine edifice will be a monument of private munificence.

Three costly Gothic churches will be completed during the present year—one for the Presbyterians, one for the Methodists, and one for the Roman Catholics. This last will be a structure of unusual splendor and size, and capable of containing 8,000 persons.

At convenient distances from the cities on the Alleghany and Monongahela, are situated the Alleghany and Pittsburgh poor-houses, while a third for the country will shortly be completed.

The court-house, with county jail attached, is a noble and imposing building of stone, and has been very much admired. Its cost was over \$200,000.

The penitentiary for West Pennsylvania, looking like some old feudal castle, with its turreted walls, is a State institution, and is situated in Alleghany City.

The United States arsenal and government machine shops, with officers

houses attached, occupy some beautiful and tastefully decorated grounds near the city lines, on the Alleghany River.

Each city has also very extensive rural cemeteries, with delightful shades, running waters, commanding prospects, and rare and costly shrubbery. In the absence as yet of shaded public grounds, these cemeteries are the frequent resort of both citizens and strangers. There is a reasonable hope that a large area of waste common, now lying in the center of Alleghany, will be shortly converted into shaded public parks. In event of a consolidation of the two cities and adjacent boroughs, a bill for which is now before the Pennsylvania Legislature, it is probable that the bridges between the cities will be free, and these grounds immediately improved.

The third position, that Pittsburgh is destined for much Commerce, and as a *distributor*, both for the East and West, the limited space yet remaining for us, compels to treat as briefly as possible.

A careful study of the map of the United States, a survey of the great natural highways of the North, South, and West, and of the directions and tendencies of advancing population and trade; a consideration, moreover, of the position of the chief seaboard cities, and the related directions of the growing centers of Western population and Commerce, between which two groups of cities there must always be an interchange of commodities and values, will most clearly demonstrate the commercial value of the position of Pittsburgh. We do not fear claiming too much. Occupying a central point between the North and South, situated at the base of the western slope of the Alleghany Mountains, at the conjunction of three navigable rivers, which give her command of 20,000 miles of cheap navigation, and that too at a most convenient distance and proper direction from five important Eastern cities, Pittsburgh stands *the door of the West*. Where she does not lie in a direct line between Eastern cities and their opposites in the West, her cheap water navigation, which terminates with her, and gives choice of five markets, will procure her large quantities of freight and much travel for points beyond her.

The various railroads which will shortly be completed, and which will connect her in the directest line with every important city, either East or West, as low down in latitude as Washington on the one side, and Memphis on the other, are expected to benefit her in divers ways. It is apparent that railroads may go through even a large place which has no local advantages, where freight breaks no bulk, and where there is no object for any stoppage in transitu, and still receive no large accession of population, or increase in value or influence; but where a city has already become a trade center and busy mart of Commerce and manufacture, and the market of a large region of country unusually abounding in agricultural and mineral wealth, every completed road increases her population, her wealth and power, makes an additional section of country dependent on her, enlarges the market for her produce and manufactures, and advances her material welfare in many unexpected ways.

Most undoubtedly, to her position at the one extremity of river navigation, Pittsburgh, without (until very lately) a single railroad, owes whatever commercial importance she is possessed of, and is the main cause why railroads have been projected and built with reference to her; and if that river were navigable the whole year round for heavy draught steamers, no number of railroads that could be built would ever be able to approach it in the carriage of freight or in value to Pittsburgh.

Their position, with reference to water navigation, is building up Chicago and Buffalo at each extremity of the lakes ; it has built New Orleans and New York in part.

At seasons of good water, heavy freights are carried from Pittsburgh to St. Louis and Nashville for 25 cents per 100 lbs.; to New Orleans and Dubuque, for from 30 to 40 cents per 100 lbs.; and no railroad, no matter how cheaply it may be constructed or how low its running expenditures may be reduced to, will ever be able to compete with water navigation at such rates. It is a fixed and well known law of Commerce, that unless certain influential causes operate in attracting trade out of regular courses, it will seek the nearest and cheapest way to market, and so intelligent and sensitive is it that, other things being equal, as soon as better and cheaper transportation facilities are afforded, as soon as freight can be carried one cent cheaper per 100 lbs., and more especially if time, rates, and distance be favorable, so soon will it give immediate recognition of the fact, and commence to flow in those courses.

Cheapness, certainty, and safety, are alike required by shippers and receivers. Pennsylvania and her chief cities, Philadelphia and Pittsburgh, have been exceedingly negligent in providing those commercial avenues which would secure to them the vast trade of the Ohio and Mississippi valleys; nor did they prepare to move until the far-seeing sagacity and far-reaching enterprise of New York and Baltimore, were preparing to enter with their roads and drain the domain belonging of nature to them. Because cheap freight and travel communications were not provided through Pennsylvania, much of the passengers and produce of the country west of her were diverted from their direct courses to New York, via Toledo, Sandusky, Cleveland, and Buffalo.

The effect of one road, although not yet completed and scarce yet in working order, in drawing back this trade into its lineal directions, is already manifested in the last published import and export reports of those lake cities.

The Ohio River is the great channel in which most of the produce and bulky freightage of the great Western valleys would flow, provided it offered a regular, certain, and cheap navigation at all seasons of the year, and if at its terminus such artificial avenues are afforded as would carry from it that which is destined for the East, and to it that which is destined for the West. It is great cause for wonder that so little has as yet been done to improve the navigation of that great national highway.

When we know the large results that would ensue from an improved condition of that and other western rivers—that ten populous, wealthy, and influential States, six large western cities, and, on the completion of roads now being built, five great eastern cities are more or less immediately interested in its constant and unembarrassed navigation, it is a legitimate subject for astonishment that no more earnest, united, and persistent endeavor has been made to secure for it the attention and favorable legislation of Congress. When single States or western corporations can procure whole millions of acres for measures of only sectional importance and limited benefits, what valuable aid, if urgently and unitedly demanded, could not an organized and co-operative combination of such States and cities secure?

Pittsburgh, although the last first-class city to move in the matter of railroads—those wonderful agents for advancing civilization and Commerce, and for uniting in close and amicable connection distant sections—has yet so

speedily recovered her lost ground that there is nothing on that point, and no road proceeding from her in any direction left to desire. All that remains for her is to await the completion and beneficial consequences of the many roads now in process of completion, to observe the direction and relations of western Commerce, to carefully guard against all that may do injury to her interests or divert her trade, and to stimulate, cherish, and aid all that may prove tributary and of value to her.

Beside the River Ohio, Pittsburgh is the terminus of the Monongahela, now navigable as far as Brownsville, but which, when three more dams now being built are completed, will be navigable for first-class steamers as far as Fairmount, Va. The tonnage for 1853 passing over the Monongahela slack water improvement amounted to 577,941 tons, and the number of through and way passengers upwards of 100,000. When completed there must be a very large increase. She is also the terminus of the Alleghany River, now navigable at certain seasons as far as Franklin. A company has just been chartered this spring for its improvement by dams. The probability is that it will be made navigable at all seasons as far as the Kiskiminitas. If that river be then slackwatered to Johnstown, at the foot of the mountains, then commencing at Holidaysburg on the thither side of the mountains, and if the Juniata be slackwatered as far as the Susquehanna and Harrisburgh, it would offer a channel fully as cheap and far more commodious than the great New York and Erie Canal, the pride of New York.

Pittsburgh is also the terminus of the main line of State works from Philadelphia to Pittsburgh, canal and railroad. A bill for the sale of this whole line has been most warmly and intelligently discussed, and has just passed the House by a vote of 64 to 30, and will most undoubtedly pass the Senate. The whole line will be sold for eleven millions of dollars, and the Central Road, in connection probably with some western roads, will become the purchasers.

There are other canals, both in Pennsylvania and Ohio, which give cheap channels for freight throughout a broad and populous country, and which connect Pittsburgh with the Lakes.

In order to estimate the value of the position of Pittsburgh as a railroad center and a distributing point, it will be necessary to take a hurried and comprehensive survey of the various roads which will converge to her from all directions, and which are now being rapidly pushed to completion.

There are altogether now nine distinct and independent routes which do or will enter Pittsburgh. Two of these, the Ohio and Pittsburgh Road and the Pennsylvania Central, are now completed. The Cleveland and Pittsburgh Road is completed to Wellsville on the Ohio, and at present employs between that point and Pittsburgh keel-boats for her freight, and steamboats for her passengers. The others have abundant means, and will be speedily constructed.

Five of these roads will be trunk lines, and will have many important tributaries and connections, and all will be good paying roads as soon as finished. Those stretching out to the West are—

1. The Ohio and Pennsylvania Road, in successful operation throughout its whole length to Crest Line, a distance of 187 miles, penetrating the rich wheat regions of Ohio, and forming many important connections. At Alliance it meets the Pittsburgh and Cleveland Road, at Londonville the Mt. Vernon and Springfield Road, at Crest Line the Sandusky and Cleveland Roads running to Cincinnati. Its continuations thence are in two important

directions, one by the Ohio and Indiana route to Fort Wayne, thence by an air-line road directly to Chicago, making the shortest possible route for the whole northwest country to Washington, Baltimore, Philadelphia, and even to New York. Another road which it will meet at Fort Wayne, and of whose value to it and to Pittsburgh it is impossible to exaggerate, is the great Fort Wayne and Mississippi Road, proceeding due west from Fort Wayne, crossing the Mississippi River at or near Lacon, and terminating at the mouth of the La Platte River; a stupendous undertaking—traversing a country now but sparsely settled, but which, when fully populated and cultivated, will become the garden of the world. The other direction is to St. Louis by the Bellefontaine and Indiana Road to Terre Haute, thence in an air line to St. Louis, a charter for which link has at length been obtained from Illinois. This route, especially if the Pacific Railroad should terminate at St. Louis, will be a most important one for Pittsburgh. Although not yet stocked, and having few connections as yet, the business and travel on the Ohio and Pennsylvania Railroad is steadily increasing. In each instance, except in cost, the estimate of its managers has been exceeded:—

Receipts for March, 1853	\$38,743	Receipts in 1st quarter of 1853.	\$94,858
Receipts for March, 1854	81,150	Receipts in 1st quarter of 1854.	202,295
Increase	42,407	Increase, 113 per cent	107,436

2. The Pittsburgh and Steubenville Road, proceeding due west from Pittsburgh, crossing the Ohio at Steubenville, where it is continued by the Steubenville and Indiana Road to Columbus, where it becomes connected with a perfect network of Ohio and Indiana roads which radiate in every direction, and thence proceeding in the most direct practicable route to St. Louis. This road will be finished in about a year, and will be a most excellent passenger route, as it is the straightest line from St. Louis, and that immense tract of country lying due west from Pennsylvania, to Philadelphia, New York, and Boston.

Another very important branch will be the Maysville and Pittsburgh Road, which, at the former town on the Ohio, unites with a road extending by way of Lexington through Kentucky and Tennessee to Memphis, on the Mississippi. This road will evidently, from a mere survey of the route, be of great importance, and will, especially if a route to the Pacific start from Memphis, be fruitful in good results to Pittsburgh.

3. The Cleveland and Pittsburgh Road is already in operation to Wellsville on the Ohio River, between which Point and Pittsburgh keel-boats are employed to carry its freight, and a steamboat to carry its passengers. One branch is now being built from Wellsville to Bridgeport, opposite Wheeling, and another toward Pittsburgh, either to enter into Pittsburgh by a separate road controlled by its company, or by a junction with the Ohio and Pennsylvania Road at Beaver. This road and its branches cannot fail in bringing a large accession of business and travel to Pittsburgh, which will be felt in all her commercial relations, and add largely to her position as a point desirable for eastern connections. Even now, when yet unfinished, and having freight subjected to transshipment at Wellsville, it does a large and increasing business with Pittsburgh. The tonnage carried by it from that point alone for 1853 was 15,000 tons; the tonnage for 1854, estimating from its increase in the first quarter of the year, will be considerably over 30,000 tons, at least four-fifths of which will be Pittsburgh manufactured articles.

4. The Cleveland and Mahoning Road, now being built, will penetrate the fertile and populous region known as the "Western Reserve," will give a closer connection with Cleveland and the Lakes, and will for much of the distance diverge but gradually from the Cleveland and Pittsburgh Road, with which, however, it cannot interfere. It will be completely finished in 1855; it will create a very large local trade, and will secure a large portion of the trade and travel centered at Cleveland and destined for points east and southeast of it. It will either connect at Newcastle with a branch of the Ohio and Pittsburgh Road, or will come directly into Pittsburgh by a separate road now projected and discussed.

5. The Pittsburgh and Erie Road is a project which has had various and fluctuating fortunes, but is now supported by such energetic and responsible men, and has such a firm and generous financial basis, that it will be immediately pushed to completion. It will serve to develop a rich agricultural and mineral country, will give a most direct northern connection with the Lakes, and will be a duct for Pittsburgh coal and manufactures to the lake country and the Canadas. Its route has been finally located through Mercer, and it will meet the Ohio and Pittsburgh branch at Newcastle.

6. The Chartiers Valley road is a route 25 miles in length, which proceeds from Pittsburgh on the south, keeps along a valley widely celebrated for its picturesque beauty and mineral resources, and unites with the Hempfield Road at Washington, Pa. It has just been put under contract, will be finished in one year, and is considered of more importance and dignity than a mere local branch. It is built to counteract the injurious withdrawal of freight and travel by means of the Hempfield route, a road which issues from the roads centering at Wheeling, proceeds due east, leaves Pittsburgh to the north, and unites with the Pennsylvania Central at Greensburg. It will enjoy a large local trade, and will be beside a much-traveled link uniting Pittsburgh and the West.

7. On the northeastern side proceeds a road which Pittsburghers are accustomed to regard with peculiar favor, simply because—independent of its through travel and freightage, which will be immense, and its more distant connections, which will be many and important—it divides, from one end to the other, one of the most magnificent districts in our country, one which is richer in resources than any other; which has hitherto remained a wilderness only because it has been inaccessible and without market facilities, and which, above all, will make Pittsburgh its chief outlet. The vast stores of iron ore, coal, limestone, salt, &c., the boundless forests of many and valuable varieties of timber which are so bountifully deposited from one end of the Alleghany Valley even up to the New York line, we have already attempted to do some justice to. When cleared of its timber it will become a most luxuriant agricultural region; and a careful writer for the *New York Tribune*, who has traversed thoroughly the entire valley, predicts that, such are its capabilities for supporting a dense, thrifty, and industrious population, that before the year 1900 it will contain 2,000,000 inhabitants. From the numerous roads now projected and being built to drain this prolific valley, we think this no unlikely result. This Alleghany Valley Road meets the New York State line at Ceres, and the New York and Erie Road, of the same gauge, at Olean, and by another branch at Corning. The Buffalo and Pittsburgh Road will come into it at Johnsonburg. The Genesee Canal, Rochester and Pittsburgh, and Attica and Alleghany Roads will unite with it at Olean. A mere glance at the map will demonstrate the importance

and value of these connections, the immense range of country which they open to Pittsburgh, the excellent connection with the Ohio River which it offers to New York, Boston, Albany, Rochester, and Buffalo, as also the character of the rich and fruitful region which will in great part make Pittsburgh its entrepot.

On the east, the various roads, either contemplated or in progress, will, when finished, place Pittsburgh in the closest and straightest possible connection with Washington, Baltimore, Philadelphia, New York, and Boston ; and first in importance is—

8. The Pennsylvania Central, a most admirably constructed road, connects Pittsburgh with Philadelphia in the straightest possible line allowable by Pennsylvania geography, and with Baltimore by a course not so direct. This road, scarcely yet finished, with only one track, and controlled by two parties, is yet transacting an immense business. Its revenues for the year 1853, while yet unprovided with adequate rolling stock, with comparatively few connections, and with numerous old-fashioned inclined planes to be overcome, were over \$3,000,000. Its results to Pittsburgh are already beyond the most sanguine anticipations of its friends, and its promise for the future is most brilliant. A few days since, 1,700 through passengers were received in Pittsburgh by two trains, while 1,500 has not been an unusual number. During the month of March there was transported from Pittsburgh to Philadelphia by this road 11,300 tons, to Baltimore, 1,801. It has not only succeeded in causing a reversion of freights and travel into their direct and natural channels, but it has also drawn them from courses in which they have long flowed, and which seemed to be their natural ones. Thus, in the month of March, this road carried east vast quantities of freight from St. Louis, which has heretofore reached the eastern markets through New Orleans, *via* Ocean. Thousands of barrels of flour marked "Peru Mills, Ill.," have also gone by this route. By a comparison of the March exhibits of some of the most important and flourishing roads in our country, some idea may be formed of the immense business which this road will shortly be able to accomplish :—

	Receipts for March, 1853.	March, 1854.
Hudson River Road	\$119,803	\$174,240
New York Central	324,511	416,847
Southern Michigan	87,144	149,495
New York and Erie	371,499	476,316
Central Pennsylvania	310,955	486,184

When it is remembered that this is a new road, with not a single branch, and that the receipts from way passengers and freight on the Columbia Road are not included in the above estimate, the result must be as surprising as it is gratifying to its friends. Before five years have elapsed, it is highly probable that two other excellent parallel routes will unite Pittsburgh with Harrisburgh, and three more Harrisburgh with Philadelphia. The former are, one by the Connellsville Road as far as Fairfield, thence by the Chambersburgh and Alleghany Road to the former place, and thence by the Cumberland Valley Road to Harrisburgh ; and one by the Alleghany Valley Road as far as Brookville, thence by a new route, the Sinnemahoning and Pittsburgh, to the Sunbury and Erie Road, and by that road to Harrisburgh. The three roads to connect Harrisburgh with Philadelphia are, first, the Dauphin and Susquehannah Road, uniting with the Reading Road at Port Clinton ; second, the Lebanon Valley Road, coming into the Reading Road

at Reading; and third, the Philadelphia and Pine Grove Road, coming into the Norristown Road at Norristown. These roads are all more than merely projected, and all of them will be needed for State and for inter-state trade and travel.

9. The Connellsville Road, part of which is under contract, proceeds from Pittsburgh in a southeastern direction, follows the course of the Youghiogheney through a valley unusually abounding in ore, limestone, coal, marble, and forests of most valuable timber, as far as Will's Creek, thence it takes an east, and then a south direction, and unites with the Baltimore and Ohio Road at Cumberland, a distance altogether of 147 miles. This road is justly considered by Pittsburgh as one of great interest and overshadowing importance, as it develops a very valuable portion of the State, for which she will be the outlet and market, and gives the most direct practical connection with the Baltimore and Washington. Two shorter routes to Washington City are projected, and will most probably soon be built. One, called the "Manassas Gap Road," diverging from the Connellsville at a point called "Myers's Mills," in Somerset County, Pa., and coming in at Alexandria, and the other called the "Metropolitan Road," commencing at Harper's Ferry, on the Baltimore and Ohio Road, and proceeding in a straight course to Washington. Both of these routes will be much straighter, and of course nearer than that by way of the Baltimore and Ohio Road. The Connellsville is heartily supported both by Baltimore and Pittsburgh, and will be pushed with vigor and speed to completion.

This is the ninth and last road of those converging at Pittsburgh; and these avenues, when finished, together with the natural ones so often alluded to, and those abundant supplies and supports of industry which lie so closely around her borders and within her ready and cheap control, must constitute Pittsburgh for all time to come a center and radiating point of manufactures, Commerce, and travel, scarcely susceptible of over-estimation.

There is a growing desire in a large portion of Pennsylvania to become more closely and directly connected with New York City, which will always be the great metropolis, financial, and trade center of this Union, and nowhere is that desire more heartily felt and more clearly manifested than in Pittsburgh, and the indications now are that the largest liberality and the most generous spirit will prevail in the State counsels, and that New York will have free and unembarrassed passage for her travel and her trade in all desired directions through Pennsylvania, and also unrestricted liberty to obtain in the least costly and most direct manner such of her mineral wealth as she may stand in need of. If the teeming and wealth-burdened soil of this State be owned by her citizens, and if, as has been said, "the future millionaires of the country are among the coal mines and ore deposits of Pennsylvania," the opinion must and will shortly, if it do not already obtain, that her true policy and wisest course is to lay open through all her borders the mineral wealth and resources of the State, to grant the most plenary license to all of whatever State, who, by increasing avenues, make sale of her products, and so to increase her markets and the facilities for reaching them in the most direct manner, as to stimulate and add vigor and activity to her mining and manufacturing industry. There are already many projects for giving free passage to New York through Pennsylvania—some in connection with the Central route, others with the Sunbury and Erie, and others again independent of both. These measures will soon mature, and will most likely receive the support of two-thirds of both houses of the legislature. Probably

the best route possible, all circumstances considered, is that by the New Jersey Central to Easton, thence to Allentown, thence, by the only link yet to be constructed, to Port Clinton, thence by the Dauphin and Susquehanna Road to Harrisburgh, and thence by the Central Road to Pittsburgh and the Ohio Valley. This road is completed all but 30 miles, and will be 160 miles nearer to Cincinnati, Louisville, and St. Louis, than by the New York and Erie Road.

In conclusion, it may be in place to state that much of the future prosperity, usefulness, and influence of Pittsburgh will depend on the wisdom, liberal views, and enlightened policy of Pennsylvania legislation; and whatever could with truth have once been said of that policy, and notwithstanding the hasty and ill-advised complaints which have been lately made of it, yet it is clearly and abundantly manifest that the decided tendency of the people of Pennsylvania and their representatives now is to the utmost liberality and largeness of view in favor of the development of the resources of the State, and a consideration of the interests of the whole rather than those of a class or section—of allowing each city and locality to depend on its own energy, foresight, and natural or acquired advantages for its share of business, trade, and travel, and in opposition to burdensome restrictions and unreasonable shackles on Commerce.

The present Legislature is near the close of a most arduous session, and has established many measures of great public benefit and importance. The late sale of the main line of the public works—which, it is allowable to hope, is but the “beginning of the end”—will at once sweep off a large portion of the public debt and its concomitant taxation; and before another year, the decided probabilities are that a general railroad law, as liberal in its provisions as that of New York and other States—a more favorable mining and manufacturing law—an enlargement of banking capital and a sound currency, so as to meet the exigencies of a growing mechanical and manufacturing population, similar in its arrangement to the banking laws of New York and Wisconsin, and a repeal of the oppressive and odious usury law which, as it stands, is an unwarrantable interference between men having and men wanting money and a premium on law-breaking, will all be passed. All of which measures will be of much benefit to Pittsburgh, and will enable her to hold out more numerous and attractive inducements to non-residents and capitalists of other States.

ART. IV.—THE MAINE LAW A FIXED FACT.

ITS RESULTS—A NEW ELEMENT IN THE INDUSTRIAL AND COMMERCIAL INTERESTS OF OUR COUNTRY.

To FREEMAN HUNT, *Editor of the Merchants' Magazine* :—

SIR:—"The propriety of accommodation to the circumstances of the times, and of turning the circumstances of the time to a profitable account," is a motto which has always constituted the rule of action of unprincipled, trading politicians, and of selfish, unscrupulous tradesmen. The Chinese have no special claim to the credit of acting upon that principle ; it has been the pole star of rogues everywhere. Translated into plain Saxon, it reads thus : "Every man for himself, and the devil take the hindmost ;" and in this shape it is recognized and acted on by rogues, of high and low degree alike—by the merchant, whose only object is the profits of trade, and by the "politician, who cares not a fig for navigation, Commerce, protection, free trade, sailors' rights," or any other right or interest, public or private, except so far as attention to them may promote his own personal ambition.

Men who act upon such a plan are necessarily incapable of entertaining any enlarged views in relation to the honor and prosperity of their country, or of the welfare and happiness of their countrymen ; their motives, objects, and desires begin and end in self. They regard other men only as instruments to be employed in some way, *any way*, or to be sacrificed, if need be, to promote their own views, without regard to honor or the right.

Such men always look with dislike upon every attempt to benefit mankind by *changing* "the circumstances of the times ;" and those who refuse to turn the appetites and passions of bad men, or the misfortunes of others—"the circumstances of the time"—to profitable account, are regarded and treated as fanatics. The professed gambler, as he plunders his victim ; the base runner, who sells false passenger tickets to the newly arrived emigrant ; the scoundrel who invades the sanctity of a neighbor's domestic circle ; the robber upon the highway ; the pirate upon the seas ; the keeper of a grog-shop, as he panders to the depraved appetite of his fellow-men ; and the no less unscrupulous politician, who "regards neither navigation, Commerce, protection, nor rights," in his lust for place and power,—act precisely upon this rule of "turning the circumstances of the time to a profitable account ;" but no true man can ever adopt such a principle or act upon it.

The promoters and friends of temperance and of the Maine Law are not surprised or discouraged because many influential men regard their views and projects as unwise and unphilosophical. No man is fit to carry out any measure of reform, unless he is prepared to encounter many formidable objections, and to resist or endure any opposition which he may meet. Almost every stage of progress in the history of society and of civilization has been won and maintained in spite of the clamor of men who oppose any change "in the circumstances of the time," because they wish "to turn them to a profitable account."

The English acted upon this principle, when they engaged in the opium trade to China on an immense scale ; and again in compelling the poor Hindoos, in large districts of Hindostan, to cultivate the poppy and to pro-

duce opium at a stipulated price, which is sold at an immense profit to the benighted inhabitants of the Celestial Empire. And again, when the Chinese government sought to avert the terrible evils brought upon its subjects by the opium trade—by the prohibition of that trade, and by the exclusion of that poisonous drug from the country, the English continued, in defiance of all law and right, openly to resist the will of the authorities, and to sell opium by the cargo, “turning circumstances to a profitable account.”

And again, when Commissioner Lin, by a vigorous and manly exercise of a rightful power, seized large quantities of the contraband article in Chinese harbors, under well-known Chinese laws, and destroyed it—acting in accordance with the law of nations and with the universal practice of all civilized countries—the English “took advantage of circumstances,” the weakness of the Chinese, and, after destroying great numbers of them, who were unable with their ivory fans and paper lanterns, to defend themselves against Waterloo bayonets, compelled these poor creatures to pay for the opium destroyed, for the expenses of the war, and to admit opium henceforth, all for the advantage of those who acted upon the principle of “turning the circumstances to a profitable account.”

I have been led to these remarks by an article in the April number of the *Merchants' Magazine*, entitled “Experimental Legislation on the Opium Trade in China, and on the Liquor Trade of the United States,” in which occur many errors of fact, as to the effect of that legislation on the liquor trade in Maine. Similar statements have been made in the political newspapers of the day by anonymous writers, which have been often refuted by responsible persons, and when repeated in such places are no longer worthy of notice. But any erroneous statements which appear in this leading and influential Magazine are calculated to make an impression upon the public mind for evil, unless they shall be speedily corrected.

The people of Maine formerly suffered more, perhaps, from the ravages of intemperance than have those of any other State. This result might naturally arise from their peculiar employments—the people of the interior being generally engaged in the lumber trade; those of the seaboard, in the fisheries and in navigation.

It might have been for this reason that the attention of philanthropic men in Maine was strongly attracted to intemperance as a *cause*, and that they labored with great assiduity and perseverance in enlightening the people as to the pernicious effects of the habit of liquor drinking. These efforts were attended with great success; yet intemperance continued, especially among the young; and the leading friends of the temperance movement began to consider the possibility of obtaining legal protection from the liquor traffic—the suppression, *by law*, of drinking-houses and tippling-shops, which at that time in Maine, as elsewhere, were protected by statute, licensed for “the public good.”

They could not doubt the right of society to protect itself from this evil, as well as from any other. It is the chief function of government to provide for the happiness of the people; and especially in a government *by the people*—a republican government—is it their right and duty to protect themselves and their children—their interests generally, from any and every cause of injury. And, in fact, no trade or business was permitted, except the rum trade, which was believed to be inconsistent with the public good.

Gambling-houses, houses of ill-fame, horse-racing, lotteries, the sale of improper books and pictures, were absolutely prohibited, because they were believed to be demoralizing in their tendency. But drinking-houses and tipping-shops demoralized the people more in one year, than all the others collectively would do in many years. Where, then, is the doubt as to the *right* of society to put the liquor traffic into the category of prohibited trades?

The question of right then was settled; it was no longer debatable: the only question in relation to it was one of expediency. Is such an enactment possible; will the people sustain it? This was a great practical question, and its solution was indispensable before the measure should be attempted. In order to do this, the men whose hearts were set upon the accomplishment of the great work of protection from the liquor traffic, undertook the herculean task of educating the public opinion of Maine in relation to the terrible evils necessarily and inevitably resulting to the people, in all the relations and interests of life, from that traffic.

To effect this, they held meetings all over the State, in churches and halls; in open fields and groves; and especially in every country school-house, by the way side and on the hill side through Maine. In the school districts, "those bidding-places of power," these meetings were carried home to every man's door; and thus the masses of the people of Maine were in a short time persuaded that the liquor traffic was an unmitigated curse in the community; that no good resulted from it under any circumstances to any one, while the evils flowing from it were innumerable and intolerable, and they resolved to exterminate it. They did not believe in the wisdom or the morality of the doctrine of turning the base appetites of their neighbors and friends for strong drinks "to a profitable account," and thereby become themselves instrumental in fastening the gigantic evils of intemperance upon their countrymen forever.

The success of these labors was complete. From every quarter of the State came up the cry of the people for "protection to themselves and to their children from the liquor traffic;" and with their petitions for a stringent and summary law, they were careful to send to the legislature those men only who would properly represent their wishes upon this subject, and the Maine Law was the result.

At the time of the enactment of the Maine Law, the liquor traffic was carried on extensively all over the State. By wholesale and retail, in cities, towns, and villages; by hogshead, barrel, bottle, and the glass, were intoxicating liquors sold freely to all comers. These liquors were manufactured in great quantities in Maine, and were imported from other States, by the vessel load, and steamboat-load, into all our seaport towns, and into all the towns and villages lying upon our great rivers, from which points they were distributed in innumerable diverging streams into every hamlet in the State.

Immediately upon the enactment of the law, the wholesale trade in liquors ceased, and has never been revived. The large stocks in the hands of the dealers were sent off to those other States, the governments of which allowed them to be sold to their people. The strange spectacle was seen in all our cities and larger towns, of the flight of great quantities of liquors, from the operation of the Maine Law. The retail trade was immediately abandoned by every dealer in the State, who had any character to lose, or who desired the good opinion of his fellow-citizens. So far as the trade con-

tinued at all, it was carried on with great secrecy and caution, and was confined entirely to the hands of the lowest and vilest part of the people, chiefly to this class of foreign population. The change in the habits of great numbers of our people was instantaneous and wonderful; they were reformed of their intemperate habits, because temptation was put out of the way.

In the city of Portland, where the law was enforced with considerable rigor, the change was very great. It was apparent to the most casual observer, and was the theme of continual remark among all classes of our people. Our streets were as quiet by night as those of a country village, and our police and watchmen remarked, that their duties were nearly at an end. The effects of the suppression of the grogshops were immediately seen in diminished vagrancy, pauperism and crime, and increased comforts among the poorer part of the people.

The Mayor of Portland, at the end of the municipal year 1851-2, after the law had been in operation only nine months, in his report to the City Council, which was ordered to be printed and circulated through the city, gave an abstract from the returns of the departments connected with poverty and crime, as follows:—

There were committed to the Alms House from June 1, 1850, to March 20, 1851, (before the law) 252; from June 1, 1851, to March 20, 1852, (after the law) 146—~~the~~ difference in nine months, 106. Number in Alms House March 20, 1851, 112; number in Alms House March 20, 1852, 90—difference, 22. Number of families assisted out of the Alms House from June 1, 1850, to March 20, 1851, 135; from June 1, 1851, to March 20, 1852, 90—difference in nine months, (just one-third,) 45. Seventy-five of the ninety in the Alms House March 20, 1852, came there through intemperance; four of the ninety were not brought there through that cause; the history of the remaining eleven is not known.

Committed to the House of Correction for intemperance from June 1, 1850, to March 20, 1851, 46; for larceny, &c., &c., 12—in all 58; from June 1, 1851, to March 20, 1852, for intemperance, 10; for larceny, &c., &c., 8—in all 18; a difference in nine months of more than three-fourths! Committed in April, 1851, 9; in May, 10—19. The "Maine Law" was enacted June 2, 1851, and from the 1st of that month to March 20, 1852, ten months, the number committed was only 10, although great activity was displayed by the police in arresting all offenders.

At the term of the District Court in Portland, March, 1852, but one indictment was found for larceny, and that was the result of a malicious prosecution; while at the March Term of 1851, seventeen indictments were found. These results have been obtained, notwithstanding an increased vigilance in arresting persons found under the influence of strong drinks.

It had been the practice of the police and watch, before the enactment of the Maine Law, to arrest no persons for intemperance who were quiet and able to make their way home; and generally the peaceful inebriate was helped home by the watchman. But after the enactment of the Maine Law this practice was changed, and all intoxicated persons were arrested wherever they were found, that through disclosures from them the secret grog-shops might be discovered. If in 1851-2, the practice of the preceding years had been continued, the commitments to the watch-house would not have been one-third so great as they were; while the adoption of the latter policy by the city administration of 1850-51, would have more than doubled the commitments during that year. The returns from the watch-house were as follow, being taken from the same report of the Mayor, to wit:—

There were committed to the watch-house from June 1, 1850, to and including March, 1851, 431 persons. For the corresponding period of 1851-2, after the enactment of the Maine Law, the number was 180, a deduction of almost three-fifths, notwithstanding the increased vigilance of the police in the latter period in arresting persons found in the streets in a state of intoxication.

The returns from the common jail showed as striking a contrast as do those stated above. The Mayor's report continues :—

Committed to the jail for drunkenness, larceny, &c, from June 1, 1850, to March 20, 1851, 279; for corresponding period of 1851-2, 135—difference, 144. Deduct liquor sellers (72) imprisoned in the latter term, and we have 63 for drunkenness, larceny, &c, &c, against 279 for the corresponding period before the enactment of the Maine Law, a deduction of almost seven-ninths in the short period of nine months! There were in jail on the 20th March, 1851, 25 persons; on the 20th March, 1852, 7 persons, 3 of whom were liquor sellers—without them, the number would be 4 against 25 of the corresponding day of 1851, a falling off of more than 83 per cent in the short period of nine months.

The jails of Kennebec, Franklin, and Somerset counties were empty, and that of Penobscot county nearly so, while the alms houses of the State were rapidly undergoing the process of depopulation. The alms house of Portland was built when the city contained about 10,000 inhabitants, and at 23,000, it was densely crowded. The authorities were considering the erection of a new one, to cost not less than \$50,000. But after the Maine Law had been in operation a few months only, ranges of apartments were empty there; and the establishment as it now stands will be sufficient, under a vigorous enforcement of the Maine Law, until the city shall contain 100,000 inhabitants.

An anecdote or two will illustrate the actual effect of the law upon the grog-shops and upon intemperance. Within four months after the enactment of the law, a Portland gentleman introduced to the Mayor a brother of his, who had arrived in the city the evening before. He had come to attend to a law suit, and had taken with him a witness who was a very intemperate man. He feared his witness would become intoxicated, and would remain so, and that he would fail in his suit in consequence. When the cars stopped at seven o'clock, the witness gave him the slip and was off. The gentleman waited anxiously for him at the hotel until twelve o'clock at night, when he came there perfectly sober. The gentleman expressed to him his astonishment and delight, when he replied: "Well, to tell you the truth, I've traveled more 'n five miles, and could n't get a drop." And there he was, a sober man in spite of himself—the grog-shops were exterminated.

But it may be said that strangers would not be likely to find the *secret* grog-shops, of which there were some yet lingering in dark places and deep cellars, but that intemperate citizens could easily procure from them the means of intoxication. Great numbers of intemperate men were reformed, and every Portland man must have been cognizant of some cases of this. There was a man living in our immediate neighborhood who was well known as a very intemperate man. We inquired one day of an acquaintance who knew him, what had become of him, as he had not been seen for some weeks. The gentleman laughed when the inquiry was made, and said that Thompson had been boasting that "he could always get liquor enough, and if his grog should be stopped, it would be pretty dry times in

Portland, he guessed." But about a fortnight before, Thompson was in his shop, with his face bleached out like other peoples', and he said: "Ah, Thompson! what's the matter, that you have changed countenance so much?" "Oh," said he, "I find it such a darned bother to get it, I give it up." And he also was reformed.

Only two weeks ago, in one of our principal streets, we were stopped by a man whom we knew perfectly well as a skillful mechanic, who had been very intemperate. He commenced immediately speaking of his affairs and of his business. We asked where he lived. Step here, said he, and I'll show you. Moving off a rod or two, he pointed out a nice white house with green blinds—and, with pride in his look, he added, "It's mine, and all paid for, and two house lots also by the side of it; and the *old woman* has three hundred dollars in cash in the house besides—all my earnings. Three years ago, I had n't a cent in the——," and here his emotions choked him, that he could not finish the sentence. He had been a miserable drunkard, squandering all his earnings at the shops of those who turned his "circumstances to a profitable account;" but now he was a respectable man and good citizen.

The declaration of the article alluded to in the April number, page 429, "that never was the time, before the present, when so much of ardent spirits, and so bad in its quality for poisoning the human system, within this same city were daily consumed," is so glaringly and notoriously untrue, that I wonder any man can be found bold enough to utter it.

At the time of the enactment of the Maine Law, the number of open rum-shops in Portland was estimated to be from 300 to 400; now, *there is not one!* There is not a shop or place in the city where a respectable-looking stranger can go call for a glass of liquor *and get it*. The keepers of the secret rum-shops have a few well-known customers, and no stranger is admitted, except under the patronage of an *habitué*. These shops contain but small quantities of liquors, and are fitted up with an apparatus which, on touching a spring, will smash the bottles containing them, that they may not be seized by the police.

Liquors introduced into the city are disguised by being inclosed in boxes or flour barrels, and in comparatively small quantities, that they may escape the notice of the police. But a short time ago, two police officers were walking in the street behind an Irishman who had a flour barrel on a hand-sled; they soon overtook him, and were about to pass him, when he turned, and seeing them, exclaimed, "Och!" and fled, leaving the sled and its load. On examination, the officers found the barrel to contain a ten-gallon keg of liquor, and carried it off to the lock-up.

Formerly, liquors were brought to this city by the vessel load and sold at auction. There were many dealers here who sold immense quantities at wholesale, and in addition, there were seven distilleries running night and day every day in the year. Now, there is no distillery in the State; no liquors are sold at all, except secretly and with great caution, to persons only who are well known; yet it is boldly said "that more liquors are sold and drunk in Portland now than at any former period."

We have formerly seen in our city long ranges of hogsheads of liquors sold at public auction; have seen large spaces on our wharves covered with pipes and barrels of liquor on sale: dray-loads innumerable of liquors passing through our streets; but now the cartage of a barrel of rum for mechanical purposes only, is a rare sight, and will always attract observation and

excite remark. The quantity of liquors sold in Portland now is immeasurably less than it was before the enactment of the Maine Law.

But we wish to add a few words on the effect of the Maine Law upon the business interests of the State, and, so far as it shall be adopted by other States, upon those of the nation. It was estimated that the people of Maine spent at least \$2,000,000 annually for strong drinks, involving a loss directly and indirectly, of wasted time, misdirected industry, and in various other ways, of at least \$2,000,000 more—making an annual loss to the State of \$4,000,000. The thorough execution of the Maine Law, and the annihilation of the liquor traffic, would immediately result in the saving of this immense sum. Being no longer squandered upon the means of intoxication, it would be directed into legitimate channels of trade, and would be expended for food, raiment, shelter, and other necessities and comforts of life, so far as they should be needed; and the balance would be added to the annual accumulating wealth of the State, and trade and manufactures would be stimulated to an extent of which we can have but very inadequate conception; while poverty, pauperism, and crime would be almost unknown among us.

The same result would follow to the trade, Commerce, and manufactures of the nation from the suppression of the liquor traffic in all our borders. The annual cost to the nation, in cash, of the liquor traffic, cannot be less than \$150,000,000, involving an additional loss, directly and indirectly, of \$150,000,000 more—making in all, a vast aggregate of \$300,000,000, which is a dead loss to the nation, no valuable return whatever being derived from it. If the liquor traffic should be suppressed, this great sum would at once be employed in promoting the comfort of the people, and in augmenting the wealth, power, and resources of the nation, instead of leaving no other result, as at present, than poverty, pauperism, degradation, and crime.

The signs of the times seem to indicate a growing determination among the people of abandoning the antiquated practice of legalizing the rum traffic, and of trying the experiment of placing it in the category of forbidden trades and occupations. The result of this experiment in Maine, so far, has been every way satisfactory to the friends of the measure, and the results are as favorable as the most sanguine had reason to expect. The measure in this State has been eminently successful. The Maine Law is a fixed fact in Maine; has been adopted already by several other States; and the policy indicated by it will pervade the UNION.

JOURNAL OF MERCANTILE LAW.

SHIP-OWNERS—DRAFTS FOR REPAIRS OF SHIP.

The United States District Court, April 18, 1854. In Admiralty, before Judge Ingersoll. William C. Pickersgill and others, vs. John G. Williams.

In the month of March, 1850, the respondent was the owner of the brig *Selma*, then lying in this port, and bound for San Francisco. Wishing to provide her captain with funds, in case he should need them on the voyage, he wrote to the libelants the following letter:—

NEW YORK, March 5, 1850.

Messrs. W. C. PICKERSGILL & Co.

GENTLEMEN:—You will please give me letters to your friends in Rio and Valparaiso, for Capt. John J. Dean, of the brig *Selma*, to enable him to draw drafts on me at one day's sight, if necessary, on account of said brig, which drafts will meet with due honor on presentation, and much oblige

Your obedient servant,

J. G. WILLIAMS.

Upon this request, the libelants furnished to Capt. Dean a letter of credit upon Messrs. Rostern, Dutton & Co., at Rio, and the brig soon after sailed. Early in May she arrived at Rio in a damaged condition. Capt. Dean presented his letter of credit, and requested that the necessary supplies and repairs should be furnished, which was done. After the repairs were commenced, Capt. Dean died, never having drawn the drafts. The vessel was for a time under the charge of the mate, and afterwards a new master, Capt. Story, was appointed by the American consul, approved by Rostern, Dutton & Co. The repairs were prosecuted meanwhile, and when completed, drafts were drawn by Capt. Story on the respondent for the amount, being between seven and eight thousand dollars, which he refused to pay, whereupon this suit was brought.

The vessel sailed from Rio in August. She afterwards put into Valparaiso, in need of further repairs, where she was sold with her cargo by her master, and the avails of such sale, or a portion of them, were sent by him to the respondent, who received them.

The respondent claims that this letter was merely a special application to authorize Capt. Dean, and no one else, to draw drafts. He also claims, that on hearing that the brig had gone into Rio damaged, he made an abandonment of her to the underwriters on the 19th day of July, which abandonment took effect from the time the cause of abandonment existed, and that he was not, therefore, the owner of the brig when the repairs and supplies were furnished, and was not therefore liable for them. He did not, however, pay over or tender to the insurance company the avails of the sale of the brig received by him.

He also claims, that he is not liable to pay the claim, because, on the 30th of August, the then master executed a bottomry obligation for them, by which the original demand was merged. It was not, however, under seal, and was expressly stated to be a collateral security. He also claims that this security was recognized by the parties as a valid bottomry obligation by a subsequent agreement, dated December 27, 1850, entered into between the libelants and the owners of the cargo of the brig, the respondent being one of them. The agreement provided, that nothing in it should affect the bottomry obligation, or any rights which the libelants might otherwise have against the owners of the vessel, and the respondent promised that if the bottomry obligation should not be a full security to the libelants, he would pay them the balance that might be due.

Held by the Court, That the promise, in the letter of March 5th, to accept drafts was only secondary—the object of the letter being to secure funds for the necessities of the vessel, and that whatever repairs and supplies were furnished at Rio to the brig, were to be paid for by the respondent—such pay-

ment not depending upon Captain Dean's drawing drafts, as a condition precedent.

That the supplies were not furnished upon the implied authority of the master to bind the owner, whoever he may be, when in a foreign port, but upon the personal responsibility and at the special request of the respondent; that it is not, therefore, necessary to inquire whether, by his abandonment, he ceased to be the owner of the brig, although his retaining the avails of the sale of the brig would render that seriously questionable.

That the supplies being furnished on the personal responsibility of the respondent, without any agreement for a bottomry security, that security, executed after they were furnished, was without authority and void, binding neither the ship nor the respondent; and no prior valid demand could be merged in or discharged by it; that, being not voidable, but void, it could not be made valid by any recognition of it as valid; that, moreover, the master of the brig not being a party to the agreement of December 27, could not ratify the bottomry security which he executed; while the respondent in that agreement says that he was not the owner of the brig, and his ratification would not bind the brig, if that was so.

Decree, therefore, for libelants for the amount of the repairs and supplies furnished to the brig at Rio, with a reference to a commissioner to ascertain that amount.

THE RIGHT OF SHIP-MASTERS TO FLOG SAILORS.

In the Court of Common Pleas, Boston, Mass., *Marion vs. Moody*.

This was an action by a seaman of the ship ———, against the master, for flogging and confining him. The evidence showed that the ship lay at anchor in the open roadstead, under a lee shore, and that orders were sent off to the master of the vessel to move his ship, as the wind had hauled. The crew refused to work, giving no other reason than that it was Sunday. The next morning they were again ordered to duty. They refused to go to duty unless the master would give them a writing exempting them from liability for their refusal of the day before. This their master refused to do, and called on each of the crew individually. Two consented to return to duty, and twelve still refused. Thereupon the master put six of them in irons. Having no more irons, he again called upon the remaining men, and they all returned to duty except the plaintiff. The master then had the plaintiff tied to the rigging, and gave him some five or six blows on the back with a small rattlin-staff, the plaintiff having on a shirt and frock. He then consented to return to duty. There was a good deal of conflict in the testimony, as to whether the order on the second day related to getting under way, or to the ordinary duties of the ship.

Wells, C. J., ruled that the statute of the United States of 1850, by which "flogging" is abolished in the naval and mercantile service, relates to punishment by flogging, and does not relate to the use of force, in any form, as a means of coercing men to the necessary performance of duty. That remains as at the common law, and is regulated by established principles. If, in this case, the flogging was administered as a punishment for a past offense or an offense then in the course of being committed, it was illegal, and the verdict must be for the plaintiff. If the jury should think that the chastisement was administered, not for punishment, but as a means of coercing to the immediate performance of a duty, then a further question must be determined. If the chastisement was administered in good faith, in the exercise of a reasonable judgment, and was appropriate in kind and degree to the end to be secured, the verdict should be for the defendant: but if, although not administered as punishment, it was yet excessive or unreasonable in kind or degree, the verdict should be for the plaintiff. In the case of a verdict for the plaintiff on either ground, the amount of damages must depend upon the relative conduct of the two parties, and the amount of the wrong and injury actually done.

The jury returned a verdict for the plaintiff for one cent damages.—*Boston Advertiser*.

OF THE RIGHTS OF MARRIED WOMEN TO PROPERTY.

In the Supreme Court, (New York,) Special Term, 1854, before Judge ROOSEVELT. *Mary A. Rusher and her husband vs. Peter Morris and others.*

The defendants insist, by demurrer, that although Mrs. Rusher has a right, Mr. Rusher has none to sue, on a bond and mortgage given to her alone, since the act of 1848; that husbands have no longer any interest in the "actions" of their wives, and that wives for the future, in respect to their own property, are to be treated precisely as if, in the language of the day, they were "single females."

Married women's property, including of course her bonds and mortgages, is now, it is true, her "sole and separate estate," and not "subject (any longer) to the disposal of her husband, nor liable for his debts." The new law, dispensing with the usual special conveyancing in each particular case, has made a general marriage settlement for all. But has it gone so far as in effect, in matters of property, to establish an entire separation between man and wife, and has it made it unlawful to join him with her when she is suing to recover her property; and must she in all cases, whether she desires it or not, choose some person to be her "next friend" in his stead?

The new Code of Procedure and the new Married Woman's Rights' Act were both in course of preparation at the same time, and in the same Legislature; but by different and independent hands, and acting in concert. And therefore, although necessary, as it certainly is, it may be difficult to harmonize their provisions. For the mere fact that the date of the final passage of the Code, April 12, 1848, is five days later than that of the other statute, can furnish no ground, under the circumstances, for inferring an intention to repeal any of the provisions of the latter.

Now the code, treating of civil actions, lays down this broad general rule, that "when a married woman is a party, her husband *must* be joined with her"—thus recognizing both his duties and his rights. Certain exceptions, however, of obvious necessity or propriety, are annexed to the rule; namely, divorce, and actions "concerning her separate property." In the former, from the nature of things, she *must*, in the latter she "*may* sue alone." In the former, as her husband, he being against her, "cannot be joined with her," she must sue by her "next friend"—in the latter he not only may, but "must be joined," unless she elects, as she may, to "sue alone." Code, sec. 114.

There is nothing illegal, therefore, in the husband's becoming a co-plaintiff in this suit. But as the wife had an undoubted right—which at times may be of great importance to the better protection of her interests—to sue without him, it is the duty of the court to guard her in its exercise. And the question is, how is that to be done? How is she to be guarded against the possible consequences of suits brought, perhaps without her knowledge or consent, in the joint names of both, but really under the separate control of the husband alone?

When a wife joins with her husband in a conveyance of real estate, the law provides, as the proof of exemption from undue marital control, that she shall make an acknowledgment, before the proper officer, that she does the act freely; and his certificate to that effect is made legal evidence of the validity of the deed. I see no difficulty, in the absence of positive rule, in introducing a similar practice in these cases. Indeed, it is but following a well-established course, never abolished, of the late Court of Chancery. And the principle is also in effect recognized by the amendment made in 1849 to the Married Woman's Act, which places even trust property under the direct control of the wife, and annuls the trustees, in all cases of certificate duly obtained of a Justice of the Supreme Court, that he has examined and made due inquiry into the situation, capacity, &c., of the married woman, and is satisfied with the result.

The sole ground on which the defendants place their demurrer is the alleged "defect of parties;" whereas, according to the argument presented at the hearing, the real objection to the complaint is a supposed excess of parties, one of them, the husband, having, as is contended, no interest in the cause of action. The oral argument, it will then be seen, overrules the written demurrer. But there is, in fact, neither excess nor defect. Husbands, notwithstanding the act of 1848,

have an interest as against strangers, in enforcing the rights of their wives. Although deprived of the power of disposal, they are not exonerated or deprived of the duty and the right, at their wives' instance, of protecting their wives' property. The complaint in the present case prays, it is true, that the mortgage money, when received, may be paid to both. But the court is authorized to adapt its relief, not to that merely which is asked for, but to that which is just; and, should the wife not make the required acknowledgment of her wishes on the subject, the court can decree the payment to be to her separately, or to her sole and separate use.

At all events, I am not disposed to adopt, either as a consequence of the code or of the act, for the better protection of their rights, the harsh proposition that married women must be turned out of court merely because they come in arm-in-arm with their husbands. Whether the married woman is under restraint or not, may be inquired into. She may be examined as to her wishes, separate and apart from her husband. She may be so examined at her own instance, or at the instance of the defendants, or on the mere motion of the court itself. And it upon inquiry, it should appear that the suit was instituted against her wishes, a discontinuance could be compelled. But if she chooses, as in most instances she well may, to associate her husband with her in the prosecution of her rights, she does but exercise a right, which, if not possessed before, the law of 1848 and the code itself have given her.

The demurrer, therefore, must be overruled, and judgment of foreclosure and sale entered, with costs, and an allowance of three per cent, and with directions to pay the mortgage money, when raised, direct to the wife, unless she shall give a written consent, duly acknowledged before and certified by one of the Justices of this Court, to pay the same to her husband, or some other person, in her behalf.

JURISDICTION—LIEN—STEVEDORE—COSTS.

In the United States District Court, in Admiralty, 1854, Judge HALL. *Owen Regan vs. The Bark Amaranth.*

This was a libel *in rem*, founded upon a claim for services rendered by the libellant and his workmen in removing ballast from the bark Amaranth, and in carting such ballast away after it had been cast upon the wharf.

On the opening of the pleadings, it was suggested by the court that the decisions which denied the right of a stevedore to proceed *in rem* against a vessel for his services in stowing her cargo, must, if sustained, be held conclusive against the libellant; for if the stevedore had no lien for his service—a service rendered wholly upon shipboard—the libellant must necessarily fail in sustaining a lien for services which had much less claim to be considered as strictly maritime in their character.

The advocate for the libellant nevertheless desired to present the question for more deliberate consideration, and at his request the libellant's evidence, to show that the services charged for had been rendered by the libellant, was taken by the court. The question thus presented has been since elaborately and ably argued, and these arguments and the authorities cited have been deliberately considered.

In the absence of any judicial decision, and especially in view of the very decided opinion in favor of the existence of a lien in such cases, which seems to have been entertained by a highly respectable elementary writer upon the subject of admiralty jurisdiction, (Benedict's Admiralty, sec. 285.) I should not have denied the relief sought in this case, without considerable hesitation and doubt. But the question, at least in this court, must be considered as settled by authorities which I have neither the right nor the inclination to disregard.

In the case of *McDermot vs. The S. G. Owens*, (Wallace, Jr.'s Rep. 370.) Mr. Justice Grier held that a stevedore had no lien for his services in loading and stowing the cargo of a foreign vessel, and he declared that the service was "in no sense maritime, being completed before the voyage is begun or after it is ended, and they (the stevedores) are no more entitled to a lien on the vessel than

the draymen and other laborers who perform services in loading and discharging vessels."

The right of a stevedore to proceed *in rem* was denied by the learned judge of this district as early as 1831, and the doctrine then asserted has, I understand, been ever since maintained in this district.

The authorities are decisive, if the stevedore has no lien. There was certainly none in the present case. It is impossible to make any distinction favorable to the libelant between the cases cited and that now under consideration.

It was insisted by the advocate for the libelant that if the service mentioned in the libel was not strictly maritime in its character, he nevertheless had a lien for the service under the provisions of the N. Y. Rev. Stat., vol. ii., p. 405, sec. 1; but I do not deem it necessary to discuss that question. In the cases already referred to, the existence of the lien was denied upon the ground that the service was not maritime; for if it had been maritime, the existence of the lien as against a foreign vessel would have been conceded without hesitation, and it necessarily follows that the contract and service upon which the libelant founds his claim in the present case were not maritime, or of such a character as to give jurisdiction of this court. If neither the contract nor the service was in its nature or character essentially maritime, it is not material to inquire whether the statute of New York gave the libelant a lien, as this court has no jurisdiction to enforce a statutory lien not founded upon a maritime contract, or growing out of a maritime service or marine tort. The jurisdiction depends upon the nature of the subject matter of the contract or controversy, and not upon the existence or non-existence of a lien. The latter only affects the form of the proceedings and the character of the remedy, and if in this case the statute gave a lien to the libelant, he should have sought his remedy under the statute before the officers or tribunals of the State.

The libel in this case must be dismissed for want of jurisdiction, and with costs.

It was strongly urged by the advocate for the libelant, that if the libel should be dismissed for want of jurisdiction, no costs should be given to the respondents, as they omitted to make the objection by their answer, and the libelant had shown that he had an honest claim—his only fault being a mistake in the form in which he had chosen to assert it. I should have been much inclined to refuse costs, if such a course could have been justified upon the principle under which costs are given or refused in this court. But costs in admiralty, though given or denied in the discretion of the court, are always to be awarded to a respondent who succeeds in his defence, unless strong equities exist to justify a different course. The doctrine upon which I have deemed it my duty to dismiss the libel for want of jurisdiction, has been the settled law of this district for more than 20 years, and the decision of Mr. Justice Grier was reported in 1849. Under such circumstances, I have felt bound to award costs to the prevailing party.

AFREIGHTMENT OF MERCHANDISE.

In the United States District Court. In Admiralty, April 11, 1854. Before Judge Ingersoll. James Connor and William O'Connor, *vs.* the steamship Sarah Sands.

About the 10th of December, 1849, the libelants shipped on board the Sarah Sands, then at this port, bound for San Francisco, forty-two boxes, barrels, and packages, containing type and printers' materials, to be carried to Panama and there delivered in like good order, to be forwarded to San Francisco, and there delivered to Messrs. De Witt & Harrison, or their assigns, at the ship's tackle alongside, and a bill of lading in that form was signed. The ship arrived at Panama, and afterwards, with the goods on board, sailed for San Francisco, where she arrived in June, 1850. Three of the packages, containing important parts of the invoice, were not found on board to be delivered.

All that could be found were lightered from the ship by the direction of some one besides the consignees, and landed upon the beach. Eight of these were,

by the consignees, placed in a storehouse belonging to Everett & Co., the consignees of the vessel, and afterwards the goods were sold by invoice, at auction, for \$8,500, but the purchaser, finding that all were not delivered from the ship, refused to complete his purchase. Negotiations were entered into between him and the consignees in reference to the delivery of the missing packages, but before the negotiations were terminated, a fire, on the 14th of June, destroyed all the goods which were then deposited at the landing place. The libelants thereupon brought suit to recover the whole value of the invoice.

Held by the Court, That an entire contract for the transportation and delivery of several articles is not performed at all unless all are delivered; that if the consignee refuses or neglects to receive them when all are offered, the carrier may discharge himself by storing them; that if a part only are delivered, and the consignee accepts them as a performance of the contract in part, he cannot afterwards claim damages for the non-delivery of the whole, but is limited to the damages which he has sustained by the non-delivery of that which he has not received; that if the consignee receives a part, with the understanding that he is to receive the whole, and finds afterwards that the delivery is not complete, he may repudiate the partial delivery, but must, in that case, return or tender to the carrier, within a reasonable time, the goods that he has received, or show some good reason for not doing so. He cannot retain a part, and claim damages for its non-delivery.

Held upon the evidence, That no part of these goods were delivered before they were landed on the shore; that the landing all but the three missing packages did not affect the rights of the libelants to recover the full value of all; that the acts done by the consignees, after the goods were landed, amount to an acceptance of them in the expectation that all would be delivered, and on that condition; that the goods were never returned or tendered to the carriers; and that the fire is not a sufficient reason to excuse this, as it consumed only those that were left on the beach, and not those that were stored.

Held, therefore, That the ship is liable to the libelants only for the damage which they have sustained by the non-delivery of the three missing packages; that damage is the difference between the value of the whole invoice at San Francisco, when the ship arrived, and the value of the invoice exclusive of the missing packages.

Decree for libelants, with a reference to a commissioner to ascertain the damages.

DAMAGES FROM WATER PIPES.

In the Court of Common Pleas, Boston, October Term, 1853. *George L. Bell vs. Lewis Josselyn.* Before Chief Justice Wells.

This action, which was brought to recover damages received from a Cohituate water pipe, illustrates the law upon this important subject. It appeared in evidence that on the 19th of March last the plaintiff was in possession of rooms on the ground floor of a building in Hanover-street, and hired the same of the defendant, that the entire block of buildings was vested in a trustee for the benefit of Mrs. Josselyn, (the defendant's wife,) free from the control of her husband, but that the defendant had the entire management of them as the agent of the trustee; that he resided at Lynn, but employed a sub-agent in Boston, who received the rents but was not authorized to let the buildings; that the defendant, as such agent, had let the premises over the plaintiff to a tenant who had agreed to pay the rent and the water tax, but who, being in arrears for rent and not having paid the water tax, left the premises before the expiration of his lease on the 14th of March, just four days before the damage alleged, and sent the key to the sub-agent's store; that because of the non-payment of the water-tax, the city shut off the water on the day the tenant moved, before he had actually vacated the premises, and in shutting it off from this tenant's room, shut it off also from other premises occupied by another tenant, and which were supplied from the same pipe. That this tenant complained and requested

the sub-agent to have it let on. That during the four days after the leaving of the tenant, and the consequent shutting off of the water, and before the defendant (Josselyn) came to Boston, the premises had been marked "to let," by some one unknown, and the sub-agent had allowed certain persons to take the key and examine them, but had not examined them himself; that on the 18th of March the defendant (Josselyn) came to Boston, was informed that the tenant had vacated and the water had been cut off, and was requested by the other tenant to have it let on; that Josselyn accordingly, without examining the premises, ordered the water to be let on; that in letting it on the other tenant's premises, it was necessarily let on also to the vacant premises of the tenant who had left before the expiration of his tenancy, and which were supplied from the same pipe; and inasmuch as the stop-cock in those premises had been left open by some person unknown, and the waste pipe of the sink had become clogged or stopped up, a large quantity of water passed into and through the premises of the plaintiff.

The case was on trial before Chief Justice Wells three successive days and, the court instructed the jury that a tenant cannot avoid his liability by leaving the premises before the termination of his tenancy and giving up the key, unless the landlord expressly agrees to release him; that the landlord may allow the premises to remain vacant or relet them for the tenant's benefit, and charge him with the difference in rent; that until he does so actually relet, the tenant may demand the key and occupy the remainder of his term, but when so actually relet by the landlord, the tenant, though responsible for the difference in rent, has no further claim on the premises; that a principal is liable for his agent's carelessness; that the plaintiff must show clearly that he was exercising ordinary care, and that the defendant was not; and that whether it is want of ordinary care and prudence to cause water to be let on to occupied premises, when, at the same time, it must be let on to vacant premises, without first examining the pipes and stop-cocks in those vacant premises was the question for the jury to decide. Verdict for the plaintiff for \$248 33.

COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE AND REVIEW.

GENERAL REVIEW OF COMMERCIAL AFFAIRS THROUGHOUT THE COUNTRY—STATE OF THE CROPS, AND CONDITION OF THE MONEY MARKET—RAILROAD LIABILITIES AND INVESTMENTS—BANKS OF THE UNITED STATES—BANKS OF NEW YORK AND NEW ORLEANS—PRODUCTION, DEPOSITS, AND COINAGE OF GOLD, SILVER, AND COPPER—IMPORTS AT NEW YORK FOR APRIL AND FROM JANUARY 1ST—CASH DUTIES RECEIVED FOR FOUR MONTHS—IMPORTS OF DRY GOODS FOR APRIL AND FOR FOUR MONTHS FROM JANUARY 1ST—EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS FOR APRIL AND FROM JANUARY 1ST—MONTHLY STATEMENT OF EXPORTS OF DOMESTIC PRODUCE FROM NEW YORK FOR ELEVEN MONTHS—EXPORTS FROM NEW ORLEANS, ETC., ETC.

THE close of another month has brought us no important change in the aspect of the Eastern question, which is held in suspense over the heads of bankers and merchants, like a gloomy cloud that will neither give rain or sunshine. In all our borders there have been no commercial distress, and the troubles which have weighed upon the market are only those of anticipated evil. The doubt as to the effect of the war in Europe upon this country is still as great as ever. Some assert that it can only add to our prosperity, even though it should be long protracted; while others can see in it only the occasion of mischief. The truth, doubtless, lies between the two. An expensive war must lead to commercial embarrassment in England and France, and from our intimate connection with these countries, such embarrassment must result in a partial disarrangement of our present prosperous commercial relations with the Eastern continent.

But our men of business are proverbial for the readiness with which they adapt themselves to circumstances; and when the current of affairs has once taken a decided direction, will trim their barks to take advantage of the tide. There is nothing half so injurious to business as suspense—alternations between the hope for good and the dread of evil; and when once the belligerents have fairly taken the field, and no immediate change is expected, there will be far less anxiety than at present. Meantime, our rural population, after an unusually backward spring, are rejoicing in summer warmth and forwarding the growing crops. Wheat has been killed by the ice in some portions of the Western States, but there is every prospect of a fair average crop. Rye has been largely sown in the Northern and Eastern States, and looks well. Corn is out of the ground, but is backward, and the extent of the crop must depend on a dry summer and late autumn, which all the "signs" foretell. The cotton crop, slightly damaged in some places by early frosts, is now coming on rapidly, and promises well. The clip of wool has been but little, if any, larger than last year, owing to the high price for several seasons of mutton and lamb; but buyers who rushed into the market last year and bought even before clipping, have many of them been ruined; and this year there is no eagerness to purchase, and very little doing by speculators. Prices will rule 10c. a 15c. per lb. below the range of last spring. The avenues by water to the interior are now open, but produce reaches the seaboard in less abundance than was expected. Still it is now coming forward more freely, and has already afforded partial relief to the money markets on the Atlantic. Exchange, however, yet favors New York, from most other points, West and South. Rates of interest have been at some distance above bank charges for more than a year, but the market is now easier. At N. York, Boston, Philadelphia, and Baltimore, 8 a 10 per cent per annum is now paid at the note brokers; while at the West, and in some parts of the South, 2 a 2½ per cent a month has been the regular charge. There has been at the large commercial centers no scarcity of money, and the high rates have been more the result of a want of confidence in the future than a lack of means.

The various railroad companies, whose interest coupons have matured since our last, have mostly met their obligations with commendable promptness. The Buffalo and N. York City Railroad Co. was one of the defaulters, and a committee of investigation are now probing its affairs, and will endeavor to reorganize its business arrangements on a more substantial basis.

There is little doing in the way of new loans for railroad enterprises, such applications not being well received by capitalists. The New York and Harlem Railroad Company awarded \$1,700,000 of its seven per cent first mortgage bonds on the 10th of May, at an average of \$93 75, the accepted bids ranging from \$92 33 to \$95 66.

The banks throughout the Union have generally strengthened themselves since our last, and are mostly in a very good position. The Federal Government have published summary statements of the condition of the banks in the several States about January 1st; but as the process by which the returns are obtained is not compulsory, and the system of reports is not uniform, the result is less useful than might have been expected. We annex a few particulars by way of comparison, referring our readers to the more detailed statement published elsewhere in our columns:—

COMPARATIVE VIEW OF THE CONDITION OF THE BANKS IN THE UNITED STATES, ACCORDING TO RETURNS NEAREST TO JANUARY 1ST IN 1837,
1843, 1848, 1851, AND 1854.

	1837.	1843.	1848.	1851.	1854.
Number of banks.....	634	577	622	731	1,059
Number of branches.....	154	114	129	149	1,208
Number of banks and branches.....	788	691	751	879	1,208
Capital paid in.....	\$290,772,091	\$228,861,948	\$204,838,175	\$227,807,553	\$301,376,081
RESOURCES.					
Loans and discounts.....	\$526,115,702	\$254,544,937	\$344,476,582	\$413,759,799	\$607,287,428
Stocks.....	12,407,112	28,380,050	26,498,054	22,388,989	44,350,330
Real estate.....	19,064,451	22,826,807	20,530,955	20,219,724	22,367,472
Other investments.....	10,423,690	13,343,599	8,229,682	8,235,972	6,841,429
Due by other banks.....	59,663,910	20,666,264	38,904,525	50,718,015	55,516,085
Notes of other banks.....	36,538,527	13,306,617	16,427,716	17,196,083	22,659,085
Specie funds.....	5,365,500	6,578,375	10,489,322	16,341,198	26,579,253
Specie.....	87,915,340	33,515,806	46,379,765	48,671,048	59,410,253
LIABILITIES.					
Circulation.....	\$149,185,890	\$58,563,608	\$128,506,091	\$155,165,251	\$204,689,207
Deposits.....	127,397,185	56,168,628	108,226,177	128,967,712	188,188,744
Due to other banks.....	62,421,118	21,466,523	39,414,371	46,416,928	50,392,162
Other liabilities.....	36,560,289	7,357,033	5,501,401	6,438,327	13,439,276
Aggregate of current credits, i. e., of circulation and deposits.....	276,583,075	114,732,236	231,732,268	284,122,963	392,877,951
Aggregate of immediate liabilities, i. e., of circulation, deposits, and due to other banks.....	889,004,193	136,188,754	271,146,639	324,539,891	448,200,113
Aggregate of immediate means, i. e., of specie, specie funds, notes of other banks, and sums due from other banks.....	139,479,277	74,007,062	112,191,928	131,926,343	163,164,657
Gold and silver in U. S. Treasury depositories.....	8,101,853	11,164,727	25,138,253
Total of specie in banks and Treasury depositories.....	54,671,118	59,865,775	84,546,505

The mass of specie which has been added to the circulation of the country is far greater than the total on deposit in the banks. Were the stock in the country still more increased, only a small proportion would be found in the bank vaults, as few of these institutions like to hoard dead capital.

We also annex in this connection our usual statement of the weekly averages of the New York city banks, which presents some interesting features:—

WEEKLY AVERAGES OF NEW YORK CITY BANKS.

Week ending.	Average amount of Loans and Discounts.	Average amount of Specie.	Average amount of Circulation.	Average amount of Deposits.
August 6, 1853.....	\$97,899,499	\$9,746,441	\$9,518,053	\$60,579,797
August 13.....	94,633,282	10,653,518	9,451,948	57,457,504
August 20.....	94,074,717	11,082,274	9,889,727	57,307,223
August 27.....	92,387,618	11,819,040	9,427,191	57,481,891
September 3.....	91,741,338	11,268,049	9,554,294	57,502,970
September 10.....	91,108,347	11,880,693	9,597,336	57,545,164
September 17.....	90,190,589	11,860,235	9,566,723	57,612,301
September 24.....	90,092,765	11,840,925	9,477,541	58,312,334
October 1.....	90,149,540	11,231,912	9,521,665	57,968,661
October 8.....	89,128,998	10,266,602	9,673,458	57,985,760
October 15.....	87,887,273	11,330,172	9,464,714	59,068,674
October 22.....	85,867,981	10,303,254	9,888,543	55,748,729
October 29.....	83,400,321	10,866,672	9,800,360	53,335,462
November 5.....	83,092,630	11,771,880	9,492,168	55,500,977
November 12.....	82,882,409	12,823,575	9,287,629	58,201,007
November 19.....	83,717,622	13,691,324	9,151,443	57,446,424
November 26.....	84,802,530	13,343,196	9,032,769	58,673,076
December 3.....	85,824,756	12,830,772	9,153,586	58,436,207
December 10.....	86,708,028	12,498,760	9,075,704	57,838,076
December 17.....	87,865,073	12,166,020	8,939,830	58,312,478
December 24.....	88,766,402	12,074,499	8,872,764	58,154,302
December 31.....	90,162,106	11,058,478	8,927,018	58,963,976
January 7, 1854.....	90,183,887	11,506,124	9,075,926	60,835,362
January 14.....	90,010,012	11,894,453	8,668,344	58,396,956
January 21.....	90,068,738	11,455,156	8,605,235	59,071,252
January 28.....	89,759,465	11,117,958	8,642,677	58,239,577
February 4.....	90,549,577	11,634,653	8,996,657	61,208,466
February 11.....	91,434,022	11,872,126	8,994,083	61,024,817
February 18.....	92,698,085	11,742,384	8,954,464	61,826,669
February 25.....	93,529,716	11,212,693	8,929,314	61,293,645
March 4.....	94,558,421	10,560,400	9,209,830	61,975,675
March 11.....	94,279,994	9,832,483	9,137,555	60,226,583
March 18.....	93,418,929	10,013,466	9,255,781	61,098,605
March 25.....	92,972,711	10,132,246	9,209,406	59,168,178
April 1.....	92,825,024	10,264,009	9,395,820	59,478,149
April 8.....	92,551,808	10,188,141	9,718,216	60,286,839
April 15.....	91,636,274	11,044,044	9,533,998	60,325,087
April 22.....	90,876,540	10,526,976	9,353,854	59,225,905
April 29.....	90,243,049	10,951,153	9,377,687	59,719,381
May 6.....	90,789,720	11,437,039	9,823,007	63,855,509
May 13.....	90,245,927	12,382,068	9,507,796	64,203,671
May 20.....	90,886,726	12,118,043	9,480,018	63,882,661

The actual amount on deposit does not show the fluctuations exhibited by this table. The checks deposited at each bank during the day are credited to the depositor, while the amount drawn for is also to the credit of the drawer in another bank, so that all such items are reckoned twice. The exchanges at the clearing house averaging about \$21,000,000 per day, show the amount of such double credits, but the total will vary according to the activity of business.

The following is a comparison of the late returns of the New Orleans Banks :

	January, 1854.	April, 1854.
Circulation	\$7,408,694	\$7,982,681
Deposits	11,846,694	12,760,805
Other cash liabilities	2,631,899	2,209,842
Total cash liabilities	21,887,187	22,952,828
Specie	6,971,605	8,668,316
Loans	17,696,299	17,637,323
Exchange	3,002,378	3,872,648
Other cash assets	3,526,947	4,030,500
Total cash assets	31,258,841	34,208,800

This places the banks in a much stronger position than they occupied at the opening of the year.

The receipts of California gold at the Atlantic sea ports are less than for the corresponding four months last year, but the total production of the mines and diggings is said to be fully as great. The Philadelphia mint has issued a three dollar gold coin, authorized by Congress, which is neatly executed, but does not seem to belong to our decimal currency, and is too nearly the size of the half eagle to be convenient for those who have not a sharp eyesight. The New York Assay Office has been organized, but has not commenced operations. Silver coin is now plenty and freely supplied by the mint.

The following will show the deposits and coinage at the Philadelphia and New Orleans mints for the month of April:—

	DEPOSITS FOR APRIL.		Silver.	Total.
	Gold.			
	From California.	Other sources.		
Philadelphia Mint.....	\$3,379,000	\$63,000	\$129,000	\$3,571,000
New Orleans Mint.	140,528	2,348	289,000	431,876
Total deposits.....	\$3,519,528	\$65,348	\$418,000	\$4,002,876
GOLD COINAGE.				
	NEW ORLEANS.		PHILADELPHIA.	
	Pieces.	Value.	Pieces.	Value.
Double Eagles.....	65,836	\$1,307,720
Eagles	11,500	\$115,000	12,552	125,520
Half eagles.....	17,570	87,850
Quarter eagles.....	106,996	267,490
Dollars	232,259	232,259
Bars	532	2,440,639
Total gold coinage	11,500	\$115,000	435,295	\$4,461,478
SILVER COINAGE.				
Half dollars	140,000	\$70,000	394,000	\$197,000
Quarter dollars	2,012,000	503,000
Dimes	400,000	40,000
Half dimes.....	600,000	30,000	1,000,000	50,000
Total silver coinage.....	1,140,000	\$140,000	3,406,000	\$750,000
COPPER COINAGE.				
Cents	399,227	\$3,992
Total coinage.....	1,151,500	\$255,000	4,240,522	\$5,215,470

The following will show the comparative deposits of gold at the Philadelphia mint for the first four months of the year:—

	1852.	1853.	1854.
January.....	\$4,161,600	\$4,962,097	\$4,215,579
February.....	3,010,222	3,548,523	2,514,000
March	3,892,166	7,533,753	3,982,000
April.....	3,091,037	4,851,321	3,379,000
Total	\$14,155,095	\$20,895,693	\$14,090,579

The decline in the imports, which continued through the months of February and March, has again been arrested, and the receipts during the month of April show an increase as compared with the corresponding month of previous years. This increase was not generally expected by the mercantile community, and has created much disappointment among those who are most anxious about the "balance of trade." It has not been owing to an active demand for foreign goods on this side, but rather to an anxiety to sell shown by parties on the other side of the Atlantic; the consignments having largely increased, while the shipments upon orders have diminished. At New York the receipts of all descriptions of foreign merchandise during the month of April are \$1,085,177 greater than for the same month of last year, \$5,617,169 greater than for April, 1852, and \$5,723,340 greater than for April, 1851, as will be seen by the following comparison:—

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN MERCHANDISE AT NEW YORK FOR THE MONTH OF APRIL.

	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
Entered for consumption.....	\$8,546,184	\$8,410,448	\$11,746,904	\$11,978,281
Entered for warehousing	1,288,813	782,422	2,286,428	2,516,996
Free goods	555,886	1,496,449	1,342,467	2,018,091
Specie and bullion	521,665	327,400	172,917	70,520

Total entered at the port	\$10,861,548	\$10,966,719	\$15,498,711	\$16,588,888
Withdrawn from warehouse.....	1,144,068	1,255,429	1,229,708	1,151,991

It will be seen that the increase has been proportionably greatest in free goods, two-thirds of the excess as compared with last year being in this item. Adding the above to the total of our previous statements, we find that the total foreign imports at New York since January 1st are \$991,068 less than for the corresponding four months of 1853, \$20,038,076 greater than for the same time in 1852, and \$12,373,838 greater than for the same time in 1851. The warehousing business shows a large increase both in the entries and withdrawals, but the latter are the largest, leaving the stock in bond slightly reduced since the opening of the year. We annex a comparative summary for four years:—

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN MERCHANDISE AT NEW YORK FOR FOUR MONTHS FROM JAN. 1ST.

	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
Entered for consumption.....	\$41,347,851	\$38,321,785	\$52,987,576	\$49,967,646
Entered for warehousing.....	5,272,414	3,933,918	5,906,277	7,569,140
Free goods.....	3,683,602	5,492,792	6,364,469	5,224,287
Specie and bullion	1,166,656	1,067,850	577,117	1,088,288

Total entered at the port.....	\$51,470,523	\$43,816,295	\$64,835,429	\$63,844,361
Withdrawn from warehouse	4,136,189	6,234,927	4,293,708	7,696,720

The following will show the receipts for cash duties at New York for the month of April, and since January 1st; the total for both periods of the current year indicate that there has been a greater falling off in liquors, and other articles paying a high rate of duty, than in ordinary merchandise:—

CASH DUTIES RECEIVED AT NEW YORK FOR FOUR MONTHS FROM JANUARY 1ST.

	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
1st three months. \$9,295,257 30	\$7,617,887 72	\$11,125,501 47	\$10,873,699 81	
In April	2,504,640 16	2,447,634 07	3,348,252 14	3,168,490 21
Total.....	11,799,897 46	10,065,521 79	14,473,753 61	14,042,189 52

The receipts of foreign dry goods have been comparatively larger than the imports of general merchandise, as will appear from the following summary:—

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN DRY GOODS AT NEW YORK FOR THE MONTH OF APRIL.

	ENTERED FOR CONSUMPTION.			
	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
Manufactures of wool.....	\$918,580	\$762,080	\$1,421,906	\$1,696,666
Manufactures of cotton.....	698,757	768,902	921,810	1,098,746
Manufactures of silk.....	1,281,669	999,303	2,104,615	2,204,071
Manufactures of flax.....	569,399	604,499	609,780	666,177
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	259,456	291,033	522,563	467,340
Total	\$3,727,961	\$3,425,767	\$5,580,174	\$6,133,000
WITHDRAWN FROM WAREHOUSE.				
Manufactures of wool.....	\$117,031	\$149,562	\$96,484	\$157,963
Manufactures of cotton.....	140,401	144,867	100,071	167,010
Manufactures of silk.....	104,735	155,249	100,671	148,412
Manufactures of flax.....	69,138	75,329	16,228	58,738
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	50,252	56,554	49,024	32,943
Total withdrawn.....	\$480,557	\$581,561	\$362,478	\$565,066
Add entered for consumption....	3,727,861	3,425,767	5,580,174	6,133,000
Total thrown upon the market.	\$4,208,418	\$4,007,328	\$5,942,652	\$6,698,066

	ENTERED FOR WAREHOUSING.			
Manufactures of wool.....	\$142,721	\$121,917	\$213,942	\$394,431
Manufactures of cotton.....	105,873	80,984	120,166	235,331
Manufactures of silk.....	135,904	203,344	144,313	365,506
Manufactures of flax.....	59,923	48,191	56,320	85,597
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	24,487	45,801	60,929	35,951
Total	\$468,908	\$499,707	\$595,670	\$1,116,816
Add entered for consumption.....	3,727,861	3,425,767	5,580,174	6,133,000
Total entered at the port	\$4,196,769	\$3,925,474	\$6,175,844	\$7,249,816

From the above it appears that the amount thrown upon the market, as well as the total entered at the port, are both larger, showing that there has been an anxiety among receivers to dispose of their stock, and to go out of the season with clean lofts. We also annex a summary of the imports of this class since January 1st:—

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN DRY GOODS AT NEW YORK FOR FOUR MONTHS, FROM JANUARY 1ST.

	ENTERED FOR CONSUMPTION.			
	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
Manufactures of wool.....	\$4,926,776	\$4,191,564	\$7,468,666	\$6,602,680
Manufactures of cotton.....	5,118,089	4,017,916	6,338,482	7,209,432
Manufactures of silk.....	9,378,017	7,688,189	11,894,953	11,123,062
Manufactures of flax.....	3,022,182	2,379,782	3,441,942	3,076,409
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	1,318,388	1,611,726	2,298,223	2,409,553
Total.....	\$24,064,042	\$19,839,177	\$31,442,266	\$30,421,126
WITHDRAWN FROM WAREHOUSE.				
Manufactures of wool.....	\$397,586	\$709,026	\$415,224	\$1,001,620
Manufactures of cotton.....	769,411	966,328	525,591	1,416,409
Manufactures of silk.....	471,312	1,024,933	592,479	1,208,435
Manufactures of flax.....	303,342	525,794	107,840	472,721
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	192,052	192,619	192,161	178,165
Total	\$2,133,703	\$3,418,700	\$1,833,295	\$4,277,400
Add entered for consumption....	24,064,042	19,839,177	31,442,266	30,421,126
Total thrown on the market.	\$26,197,745	\$23,257,877	\$33,275,561	\$34,698,526

ENTERED FOR WAREHOUSING.

	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
Manufactures of wool	\$481,814	\$573,699	\$588,294	\$1,060,818
Manufactures of cotton	671,736	496,554	541,287	1,184,396
Manufactures of silk	749,619	1,323,201	719,084	1,207,785
Manufactures of flax	263,479	161,192	111,554	355,856
Miscellaneous dry goods	180,303	168,150	178,200	106,960
Total	\$2,346,951	\$2,722,796	\$2,138,409	\$3,915,810
Add entered for consumption	24,064,042	19,839,177	31,442,266	30,421,126

Total entered at the port ... \$26,410,993 \$22,561,973 \$33,580,675 \$34,336,436

The difference as compared with last year is not large, but it must be remembered that the imports of last year reached an unprecedented amount, and that a large decline was confidently anticipated for the current year.

The exports of domestic produce from New York to foreign ports, which had been in comparative excess since June, 1853, show a falling off in April, owing to the limited stock on the seaboard, which has prevented shipments. The exports of specie have increased. The total exports from New York to foreign ports for April, exclusive of specie, are \$866,054 less than April, 1853, \$278,896 greater than for April, 1852, and about the same as for April, 1851. We annex a comparative summary:—

EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS FOR THE MONTH OF APRIL.

	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
Domestic produce	\$4,561,770	\$4,244,044	\$5,178,471	\$4,578,693
Foreign merchandise (free)	59,904	67,719	208,708	125,717
Foreign merchandise (dutiable)...	320,981	353,262	422,796	239,511
Specie	3,482,182	200,266	767,055	3,474,525
Total exports	\$8,424,837	\$4,865,291	\$6,577,030	\$8,418,446
Total, exclusive of specie	4,942,655	4,665,025	5,809,975	4,943,921

The comparison with the same month of 1851, it will be seen, shows but little difference in any of the items. The exports from New York to foreign ports (exclusive of specie) since January 1st, are 5,081,457 larger than for the corresponding four months of last year, \$6,774,645 larger than for the same time in 1852, and \$6,950,608 larger than for the same time in 1851. The exports of specie since January 1st, although twice as large as for the same period of last year, are only about the same as in 1852, and less than in 1851. The following is a complete summary:—

EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS FOR FOUR MONTHS, FROM JANUARY 1ST.

	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
Domestic produce	\$14,276,498	\$14,329,528	\$16,199,107	\$20,846,630
Foreign merchandise (free)	201,539	288,901	344,211	451,866
Foreign merchandise (dutiable)...	1,355,437	1,391,008	1,159,307	1,485,586
Specie	8,125,013	7,232,761	3,228,233	7,366,058
Total exports	\$23,958,487	\$23,242,198	\$20,930,858	\$30,150,140
Total, exclusive of specie	15,833,474	16,009,437	17,702,625	22,784,082

Had the stock of domestic produce which reached the seaboard before the close of navigation been sufficient, after the supply of the home-trade, to have left a larger surplus for shipment, the increase in the exports would have been still

greater. We have compiled a monthly summary of the shipments of domestic produce since the comparative increase commenced in June, 1853, which will be found very interesting:—

EXPORTS OF DOMESTIC PRODUCE FROM NEW YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS.

	1850-1.	1851-2.	1852-3.	1853-4.
June.....	\$3,971,207	\$3,778,289	\$3,566,369	\$5,057,229
July.....	3,574,260	3,188,027	2,965,542	4,882,957
August.....	4,937,393	3,259,594	2,340,820	4,540,383
September.....	4,844,574	2,593,986	3,289,429	5,579,088
October.....	4,561,742	2,702,382	3,497,874	5,459,401
November.....	3,677,657	2,451,511	3,529,447	7,489,937
December.....	3,444,513	2,512,426	2,947,848	7,166,832
January.....	3,152,744	2,419,296	2,990,624	5,304,203
February.....	2,585,786	3,852,943	3,325,005	5,400,924
March.....	3,976,198	4,313,245	4,705,007	5,562,810
April.....	4,561,770	4,244,044	5,178,471	4,578,693
Total.....	\$48,287,844	\$34,815,753	\$38,386,436	\$61,022,457

The above shows an increase of \$22,686,021 in the shipments of produce from New York since June, as compared with the same time of the previous year—\$26,206,704 as compared with the same time in 1851-2—and \$17,734,613 over the very large total for the same time in 1850-1. We annex a comparative statement of the shipments of some of the leading articles of produce from New York to foreign ports from January 1st to May 20th in this and the last year:—

EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS OF CERTAIN LEADING ARTICLES OF DOMESTIC PRODUCE, FROM JANUARY 1ST TO MAY 20TH:—

	1853.	1854.		1853.	1854.
Ashes—pots.....bbls	2,364	1,944	Naval stores.....bbls	148,340	242,631
pearls.....	453	241	Oils—whale.....galls	196,387	86,566
Beeswax.....lbs	97,606	79,668	sperm.....	249,019	179,276
Breadstuffs—			lard.....	10,596	13,650
Wheat flour....bbls	588,375	513,877	linseed.....	3,637	1,540
Rye flour.....	1,157	6,855	Provisions—		
Corn meal.....	19,095	33,726	Pork.....bbls	30,064	33,841
Wheat.....bush	949,024	1,065,116	Beef.....	25,905	29,320
Rye.....		315,158	Cut meats.....lbs	2,806,660	8,359,855
Oats.....	23,525	11,503	Butter.....	656,784	976,356
Barley.....			Cheese.....	1,830,677	683,916
Corn.....	509,545	1,926,380	Lard.....	3,106,769	6,481,365
Candles—mold...boxes	23,417	22,154	Rice.....trcs	5,857	13,656
sperm.....	2,253	2,740	Tallow.....lbs	667,446	1,482,527
Coal.....tons	13,982	13,260	Tobacco, crude...pkgs	9,298	15,943
Cotton.....bales	109,847	114,355	Do., manufactured..lbs	2,351,982	1,227,627
Hay.....	1,606	1,648	Whalebone.....	1,100,971	474,002
Hops.....	100	404			

This shows a falling off in the shipments of wheat flour, owing to the high prices and scarcity which have prevailed at the seaboard during the last few months. The exports of Indian corn have increased more than 200 per cent, and the quantity of provisions shipped has also been greater—the total of cut meats (chiefly bacon) being 8,359,855 lbs. against 2,806,660 lbs. for the corresponding period of last year. The exports from the Gulf of Mexico, and especially from New Orleans, which showed a large decline for the latter half of 1853, have largely increased since January 1st, as will be seen by the following comparison:—

EXPORTS FROM NEW ORLEANS TO FOREIGN PORTS FOR THREE MONTHS FROM JANUARY 1ST.

	Domestic produce.		Foreign produce.	
	1853.	1854.	1853.	1854.
In American vessels.....	\$11,862,932	\$17,090,068	\$149,173	\$49,068
In foreign vessels	7,651,775	7,702,528	80,520	7,841
Total:.....	\$19,514,707	\$24,792,596	\$179,693	\$56,909
Total exports for three months, 1854			\$24,859,505	
Total exports for three months, 1853			19,694,400	
Increase this year			\$5,165,105	

If a corresponding increase has been realized from other ports, (and we think this may be safely reckoned upon, from the large shipments of grain and flour taken from Southern Atlantic ports,) the exports for the fiscal year 1853-54 will be swelled beyond all former precedent.

THE NEW YORK COTTON MARKET

FOR THE MONTH ENDING MAY 15.

PREPARED FOR THE MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE BY UHLHORN & FREDERICKSON, BROKERS,
148 PEARL STREET, NEW YORK.

Cotton has varied but little in price during the past month. The demand has been steady, and holders on the whole have offered freely. The low grades have attracted little or no attention, from their abundance, the principal demand being for middling qualities and above. The finer grades continue scarce, and are held above the views of shippers; our own spinners in the purchase of same are compelled to pay greatly above the quoted rates.

The business of the first week of the month under review exceeded 2,000 bales per day, at an advance of $\frac{1}{4}$ c. per lb. on the previous week. The foreign advices being of a favorable character, and confirmatory of accounts from various sections of the South, tended to the above elevation in prices, which were firmly maintained throughout the week, with the following sales:—

Export	bales.	3,348	Speculation	bales.	3,260
Home use		3,310	In transitu		2,709
Total sales during the week					12,627

PRICES ADOPTED APRIL 24TH FOR THE FOLLOWING QUALITIES:—

	Upland.	Florida.	Mobile.	N. O. & Texas.
Ordinary.....	8	8	8	8
Middling	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	9 $\frac{1}{2}$
Middling fair	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	11
Fair	11	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	12 $\frac{1}{2}$

For the week ending May 1st the demand somewhat moderated, and prices were reduced a shade on all grades; the market throughout the week was well supplied and holders disposed to sell. The Arabia's advices, received this week, were favorably construed. Politics looked brighter, money easy, and many of the English spinners commencing the *cotton sail-cloth* manufacture, gave hopes that the consumption of the staple would increase. The prospect here, however, was clouded by the apprehension of a decline to be received in answer to ours, and the week closed dull, with the following sales and quotations:—

Export	bales.	2,990	Speculation	bales.	1,170
Home use		2,314	In transitu		1,431
Total sales during the week					7,905

PRICES ADOPTED MAY 1ST FOR THE FOLLOWING QUALITIES:—

	Upland.	Florida.	Mobile.	N. O. & Texas.
Ordinary.....	8	8	8	8
Middling.....	9	9½	9½	9½
Middling fair.....	10½	10½	10½	11
Fair.....	11½	11	11½	12

The depression noticed above continued through the following week, without any material change in prices. The operations were principally on spinners' and speculators' accounts, the demand for export being lessened by the withdrawal of orders and decreased limits on advances from abroad. The quotations below were obtained for a strict classification, but mixed lists were unsalable unless at a decline of about ¼c. a ½c. per lb.

Export.....bales.	1,313	Speculation.....bales.	2,107
Home use.....	3,133	In transitu.....	324
Total sales during the week.....			6,877

PRICES ADOPTED MAY 8TH FOR THE FOLLOWING VARIETIES:—

	Upland.	Florida.	Mobile.	N. O. & Texas.
Ordinary.....	7½	7½	7½	7½
Middling.....	9	9	9½	9½
Middling fair.....	10½	10½	10½	11
Fair.....	11	11½	11½	12½

The week ending May 15th witnessed a revival of a demand from all parties. Our own manufacturers took to the extent of 4,616 bales, mostly of grades above good middling. Their purchases of lower grades are very small. The high price of labor, and the imperfections of our machinery, require a much better article of cotton to produce the same quantity and quality of yarn than is necessary on the other side. Prices gradually hardened during the week, and at the close an advance of ¼c. per lb. was observable on all grades—holders offering their stocks sparingly, especially the better grades, which were only obtainable at outside figures. The market closed firm, at the following quotations:—

Export.....bales.	3,985	Speculation.....bales.	1,514
Home use.....	4,616	In transitu.....	1,289
Total sales during the week.....			11,404

PRICES ADOPTED MAY 15TH FOR THE FOLLOWING QUALITIES:—

	Upland.	Florida.	Mobile.	N. O. & Texas.
Ordinary.....	7½	7½	7½	7½
Middling.....	9½	9½	9½	9½
Middling fair.....	10½	10½	11	11½
Fair.....	11½	11½	11½	12½

The following is from our "Cotton Report" prepared for the steamer of the 13th instant:—

CROP PROSPECTS. The probable extent of last year's crop is lost sight of in the interest manifested in regard to the growing one. From all sections of the cotton-growing districts, and from New Orleans, Mobile, Apalachicola, and Savannah, the complaints are numerous and *well founded*, of the damage done to the crop—and the unseasonableness of the weather is the tenor of all letters to the latest mail dates. The frosts of the 17th and 18th of April have been followed by extremely cold weather to the end of the month. The damage done to cotton in many districts is such that planters have decided in most cases to plant corn instead.

Cotton seed for replanting is likewise scarce in many places, and the prospect for the supply of cotton out of the growing crop is anything but encouraging, following as it does our present deficient receipts of 496,000 bales, as compared with last year.

JOURNAL OF BANKING, CURRENCY, AND FINANCE.

CORPORATED WEALTH IN THE CITY OF NEW YORK.

VALUE OF PROPERTY AND TAXES OF STOCK COMPANIES IN NEW YORK CITY.

In the *Merchants' Magazine* for May, 1854, (Vol. xxx, No. v.) we published a statement of the relative value of the real and personal property in each Ward of the City of New York in the years 1852 and 1853, derived from the report of Hon. A. C. Flagg, City Controller. We now give, from the same official source, a statement of the moneyed or stock corporations in the City of New York, deriving an income from their capital, showing the name of each company, the amount of personal and real estate, the total valuation, and the amount of tax levied on each company in July, 1853:—

	Personal estate.	Real estate.	Tot'l valuation.	Am't tax.
Bank of North America	\$889,749	\$99,000	\$979,749	\$12,092 73
Merchants' Bank	1,376,152	115,000	1,491,152	18,404 83
Manhattan Company	1,705,588	120,000	1,825,588	22,532 64
National Bank	719,862	58,000	777,862	9,600 90
Union Bank	875,000	90,000	965,000	11,919 70
Bank of Commerce	4,890,000	110,000	5,000,000	61,718 49
Metropolitan Bank	1,804,803	200,000	2,004,803	24,744 68
Bank of the Republic	1,325,580	160,000	1,485,580	18,336 05
Mechanics' Banking Association ..	593,408	58,000	646,408	7,978 34
St. Nicholas Bank	440,000	60,000	500,000	6,171 34
Mechanics' Bank	1,338,330	90,000	1,428,330	17,629 44
Bank of the State of New York ..	1,867,625	115,000	1,982,625	24,470 94
New York Gas Company	243,654	555,800	799,454	9,867 28
Corn Exchange Bank	438,000	62,000	498,000	6,146 64
Hanover Bank	915,426	50,000	965,426	11,915 95
Dock Company	45,000	45,000	555 40
Phoenix Bank	1,103,274	96,000	1,199,274	14,802 26
Sun Mutual Insurance Company ..	831,894	150,000	981,894	12,119 21
Atlantic Insurance Co.	732,552	250,000	982,552	12,127 31
Merchants' Exchange Co.	800,000	800,000	9,874 16
Eagle Fire Insurance Co.	233,850	61,583	295,433	3,646 42
New York do.	163,346	38,000	201,346	2,485 16
Howard do.	175,413	60,000	235,413	2,905 62
Knickerbocker do.	229,211	48,000	277,211	3,421 51
New York Life and Trust Co.	917,582	96,000	1,013,582	12,510 33
City Bank	720,000	80,000	800,000	9,874 26
Bank of New York	1,229,200	240,000	1,469,200	18,133 87
Bank of America	1,777,000	130,000	1,907,000	23,537 52
Continental Bank	643,980	643,980	7,943 44
Suffolk Bank	100,000	100,000	1,234 27
American Exchange Bank	1,499,500	1,499,500	18,507 87
Leather Manufacturers' Bank.	596,935	596,935	7,367 78
Marine Bank	430,000	430,000	5,307 86
East River Bank	336,050	336,050	4,147 75
Peter Cooper Insurance Co.	150,000	150,000	1,851 40
Howard Life Insurance Co.	110,000	110,000	1,357 69
N. Y. Printing & Dyeing Establish.	33,663	33,663	415 48
Spring Valley Shot and Lead Co.	20,000	23,000	43,000	490 65
Broadway Bank	451,675	140,000	591,675	7,302 84
Chemical "	248,000	55,000	303,000	3,739 82
Ocean "	925,798	70,000	995,798	12,290 81
North River Bank	570,502	80,000	650,502	8,023 94
Merchants' Exchange Bank	1,165,952	60,000	1,225,952	15,231 55
Grocers' Bank	275,642	16,500	292,142	3,605 80
Irving Bank	258,808	41,000	299,803	3,700 42
Central Bank	270,000	270,000	3,332 52
New York Exchange Co.	130,000	130,000	1,604 55

	Personal estate.	Real estate.	Total valuation.	Am't tax.
North River Ins. Co.....	335,200	14,000	349,200	4,310 06
Merchants' "	200,000	200,000	2,468 54
Irving "	200,000	200,000	2,468 54
Columbia "	200,000	200,000	2,468 54
Park Fire "	200,000	200,000	2,468 54
New Amsterdam Insurance Co....	200,000	200,000	2,468 54
U. S. Mail Steamship Co.....	1,000,000	1,000,000	12,342 70
Hudson River Railroad Co.....	135,000	500,000	635,000	7,316 24
Harlem Railroad	55,000	275,000	330,000	4,078 04
Sixth Avenue Railroad.....	613,086	613,086	7,567 14
Croton Manufacturing Co.....	5,050	5,050	62 33
Hoboken Ferry Co.....	20,000	20,000	246 55
Newark Ferry Co.....	7,500	7,500	92 57
Chatham Bank.....	336,945	60,000	396,945	4,899 36
Tradesmen's Bank.....	375,600	24,000	399,600	4,932 13
Roosevelt and Bridge St. Ferry Co.	120,000	120,000	1,481 12
Astor Fire Insurance Co.....	150,000	150,000	1,851 40
American Institute.....	50,000	50,000	617 13
Bank of the Commonwealth.....	750,000	750,000	9,257 02
Delaware and Hudson Canal Co..	212,715	212,715	2,625 47
Ocean Steam Navigation Co.....	601,360	601,360	7,422 40
Pacific Mail Steamship Co.....	500,000	500,000	6,171 35
N. Y. and Liverpool Steamship Co.	2,500,000	2,500,000	30,856 75
N. Y. and Virginia " ..	205,850	205,850	2,540 74
N. Y. and California " ..	258,000	258,000	3,184 41
Empire Stone Dressing Co.....	270,000	270,000	3,332 62
N. Y. and Havre Steam Nav. Co..	681,000	681,000	8,405 37
Thompson & Livingston's Express.	2,500	2,500	30 85
American Express Co.	3,000	3,000	37 02
Adams' Express Co.....	4,000	4,000	49 37
Union India Rubber Co.....	250,000	250,000	3,085 67
N. Y. Floating Derrick Co.....	60,000	60,000	740 56
Ætna Fire Ins. Co.....	200,000	200,000	2,468 54
City "	210,000	210,000	2,591 96
East River "	150,000	150,000	1,851 40
Farmers' Loan and Trust Co.....	932,578	410,000	1,342,578	16,544 87
Firemen's Insurance Co.....	204,000	204,000	2,517 91
Jefferson "	188,010	188,010	2,320 54
Manhattan "	250,000	250,000	3,085 67
National "	106,279	106,279	1,311 77
N. Y. Equitable "	210,000	210,000	2,591 96
N. Y. Mutual "	350,000	350,000	4,319 94
North American "	247,694	247,694	3,057 21
United States "	250,000	250,000	3,085 67
Union Mutual "	221,540	221,540	2,734 39
Commercial "	200,000	200,000	2,468 54
Grocers' "	200,000	200,000	2,468 54
Empire City "	200,000	200,000	2,468 54
Washington "	200,000	200,000	2,468 54
Niagara "	200,000	200,000	2,468 54
Clinton "	250,000	250,000	3,085 67
New York Life "	250,000	250,000	3,095 67
Manhattan "	100,000	100,000	1,234 27
Hanover "	150,000	150,000	1,851 40
Republic "	150,000	150,000	1,851 40
Lafarge "	150,000	150,000	1,851 40
Fire & Ins'd Mar. "	150,000	150,000	1,851 40
Continental "	500,000	500,000	6,171 35
Home "	500,000	500,000	6,171 35
New York City "	500,000	500,000	6,171 35
New England Fire and Inland Navigation Insurance Co.....	200,000	200,000	2,468 54
American Oil Company.....	45,000	45,000	555 42

	Personal estate.	Real estate.	Tot'l valuat'n.	Am't tax.
N. Y. Oil Lubricating Man. Co.	5,000	5,000	61 71
United States Life Ins. Co.	100,000	100,000	1,234 27
Mercantile Mutual Insurance Co. .	688,640	688,640	8,499 63
General " " "	250,000	250,000	3,085 67
Astor " " "	350,000	350,000	4,319 94
Commercial " " "	30,000	30,000	370 28
Atlas Mut. and Marine Ins. Co.	30,000	30,000	370 28
Mutual Life Insurance Co.	800,000	800,000	9,874 16
The Association for the Exhibition of Industry of all Nations.	400,000	400,000	4,937 08
Seventh Ward Bank.	462,087	33,250	495,337	6,113 77
Mercantile "	600,000	600,000	7,405 62
Fulton "	588,000	18,000	606,000	7,479 66
Market "	622,500	622,500	7,683 32
Shoe & Leather "	548,779	548,779	6,773 40
Market Insurance Co.	200,000	200,000	2,468 54
Union Whitelead Co.	20,000	20,000	246 85
Saugerties Whitelead Co.	25,000	25,000	308 56
Nassau Bank	393,321	393,321	4,854 64
Mercantile Insurance Co.	200,000	200,000	2,468 54
New York Oil Manufacturing Co. .	272,500	272,500	3,363 38
New York India rubber Co.	50,000	50,000	617 13
Brooklyn Whitelead Co.	75,000	75,000	925 70
People's Bank	412,000	412,000	5,085 19
People's Ins. Co.	150,000	150,000	1,851 40
Empire City Bank	223,531	223,531	2,758 97
Lorillard Fire Ins. Co.	200,000	200,000	2,468 54
Hamilton "	150,000	150,000	1,851 40
Lennox "	150,000	150,000	1,851 40
Citizens' Bank	298,657	45,000	343,657	4,241 64
N. Y. Steam Sugar Refining Co. .	230,000	179,074	409,074	5,049 07
N. Y. Floating Dry Dock Co. .	200,000	32,000	232,000	2,863 44
Screw Dock Co.	59,000	35,000	94,000	1,160 19
Balance Dry Dock Co.	75,000	75,000	925 70
American Cordage Co.	81,700	81,700	1,008 38
Broadway Ins. Co.	160,500	47,000	207,500	2,561 13
Pacific Bank.	422,700	422,700	5,217 24
Pacific Ins. Co.	200,000	200,000	2,468 54
Greenwich Bank	166,223	12,000	178,223	2,199 74
Greenwich Ins. Co.	186,400	7,500	193,900	2,393 24
Dry Dock Co.	172,414	143,700	316,114	3,903 41
Mechanics' and Tradesmen's Bank.	186,458	10,000	196,458	2,424 81
Mech. and Tradesmen's Ins. Co. .	200,000	200,000	2,468 52
Butchers' and Drovers' Bank	540,000	70,000	610,000	7,529 08
Bowery Fire Ins. Co.	300,000	300,000	3,702 81
Bowery Bank.	310,150	35,000	345,150	4,260 07
Stuyvesant Ins. Co.	200,000	200,000	2,468 54
Manhattan Gas Co.	775,624	20,000	795,624	9,820 14
North American Gutta-percha Co.	43,500	43,500	536 90
Knickerbocker Bank.	255,818	38,000	293,818	3,626 51
St. Nicholas Ins. Co.	150,000	150,000	1,851 40
New Haven Railroad Co.	138,600	138,000	1,703 29

RECAPITULATION OR SUMMARY STATEMENT OF THE ABOVE.

The total of personal estate is.	\$66,928,417 63
The total of real estate.	6,665,407 00
Total valuation	\$73,593,824 63
Total amount of tax.	897,735 46

These amounts are all embraced in the table published in the *Merchants' Magazine* for May, 1854, vol. xxx, No. 5, p. 608.

DEBT AND FINANCES OF NEW YORK CITY.

In the *Merchants' Magazine* for March, 1854, we published a tabular statement of the relative value of the real and personal estate in the city and county of New York, as assessed in 1852 and 1853, derived from the annual report of the Controller, (HON. A. C. FLAGG,) of the receipts and expenditures of the corporation of the city of New York for the year 1853. The report of Mr. Flagg was presented in the Board of Councilmen, February 6th, 1854. This is an ably and faithfully prepared document. We condense from the report the subjoined statement of the debts and finances of the city:—

The receipts and expenditures of the corporation, during the year ending on the 31st December, 1853, exclusive of the sinking fund set apart for the payment of the debt, have been as follows:—

Expenditures from January 1, 1853, to December 31, 1853.....	\$7,927,740 00
Received from all sources, except the sinking fund, during same year	8,823,851 17

Expenditures less than receipts	896,110 29
---------------------------------------	------------

The expenditures and receipts on account of the city government, not including trust funds or the sinking fund, for the year ending December 31, 1853, have been as follows:—

Expenditures for the support of the city government.....	\$3,311,741 04
Receipts from all sources except taxation.....	150,694 98

Balance payable from taxation.....	3,161,046 06
------------------------------------	--------------

THE SINKING FUND. The ordinances of the common council of New York city have established separate sinking funds; one for the payment of interest, and another for the reimbursement of the principal of the city debt. All the real estate belonging to the city, and the revenue derived from nearly all sources, are pledged to one or the other of these funds. This leaves the current annual expenses of the city government to be supplied mainly by direct taxation.

The sums received and expended on account of the sinking funds, for the year ending on the 31st December, 1853, have been as follows:—

Received on account of the fund for the redemption of the city debt	\$929,988 12
Balance in bank, January 1, 1853	91,415 60

	1,021,403 72
Paid from same fund.....	601,827 72

\$419,576 00

Received on account of the fund for the payment of interest on debt	\$1,095,320 75
Balance in treasury, January 1, 1853.....	385,812 76

	1,481,141 51
Paid for interest on the city debt, invested, &c.....	996,182 18

Balance in treasury January 2, 1854.....	484,959 33
--	------------

CITY DEBT. The total amount of the city debt and means on hand for its payment is as follows:—

The debt on the 1st January, 1854.....	\$13,960,856 00
Stocks, bonds, mortgages, and cash in the hands of commissioners..	4,631,167 18

Balance unprovided for.....	9,329,688 82
-----------------------------	--------------

In addition to the above amount of debt, money has been borrowed to pay off an accumulation of liabilities, commonly called a "Floating Debt," and to construct public buildings, and piers and docks. This debt is to be paid by taxation, at the rate of fifty thousand dollars each year from 1854 to 1876, both inclusive. The total amount is \$950,000.

TOTAL OPERATIONS OF THE TREASURY IN 1853. Including the receipts and payments on account of the sinking fund, the entire operations of the treasury for the year are as follows:—

Received into the treasury.....	\$8,823,851 17
Received on account of sinking fund for payment of principal.....	929,988 12
“ “ “ “ interest.....	1,095,328 75
Total.....	10,849,168 04
Expenditures.....	\$7,927,740 00
“ on account of sinking fund for payment of debt.....	601,827 72
“ “ “ “ interest....	996,182 18
Total.....	9,525,749 90

DEBT OF CINCINNATI, OHIO.

The total expenditures of the city of Cincinnati for the fiscal year ending March 1, 1854, were \$475,000. The public debt amounts to \$2,929,000, of which \$1,960,000 consists of bonds loaned to various companies, principal and interest guarantied to be repaid by them. The debts due the city amount to \$1,167,978.

DEBT OF CINCINNATI.

	Interest. per cent.	Redeemable.	Amount.
Loan.....	5	1885	\$40,000
Loan.....	5	1871	100,000
Loan.....	5	1885	80,000
Little Miami Railroad Company	6	1860—1865	80,000
“ “ “ “	6	1880	100,000
Cincinnati, and W. W. Canal	6	1865	400,000
Cincinnati Water Works.....	6	1865	300,000
“ “ “ “	6	1895	500,000
Floating Debt.....	6	1897	150,000
Cincinnati and W. W. Canal.....	6	1897	30,000
Lafayette Bank.....	6	1865	5,000
School purposes.....	6	1885	25,000
Purchase of lot.....	6	1870	60,000
Hillsborough Railroad Company	6	1880	100,000
Hamilton & Eaton Railroad Company	6	1881	150,000
Covington & Lexington Railroad Co	6	1881	100,000
Ohio & Mississippi Railroad Co	6	1882	600,000
Cincinnati Water Works	6	1900	75,000
Floating debt, (consolidated).....	6	1900	38,000
			\$2,929,000
At five per cent.....			\$520,000
At six per cent.....			2,709,000

DOMESTIC EXCHANGES IN THE UNITED STATES.

The Secretary of the Treasury, Hon. JAMES GUTHRIE, has made an arrangement by which the several assistant treasurers and depositaries are required to make monthly reports to the Treasury Department, as to the finances and exchanges at their respective localities. From the first of these reports the following table has been compiled, showing the quotation of exchanges on the 1st of April, 1854. We hope to be able to continue to give from these reports monthly statements of the same kind. From Baltimore, Mobile, and Nashville, the reports down to the 1st of April were not complete, and have, therefore, been omitted. We are indebted to the *Union* for the present statement.

QUOTATIONS OF DOMESTIC EXCHANGES ON THE 1ST OF APRIL, 1864, RECEIVED AT THE TREASURY DEPARTMENT FROM THE ASSISTANT
TREASURERS AND DEPOSITARIES.

	Upon Boston.	New York.	Philadelphia.	Baltimore.	Washington.	Richmond.	Charleston.
At Boston.....	1-10 discount....	$\frac{1}{2}$ discount....	$\frac{1}{2}$ discount....	$\frac{1}{2}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$ discount.	$\frac{1}{2}$ discount....	$\frac{1}{2}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$ dis....
New York.....	$\frac{1}{2}$ discount....	$\frac{1}{2}$ discount....	$\frac{1}{2}$ discount....	$\frac{1}{2}$ dis....	1 per cent dis....	1 per cent dis....
Philadelphia.....	$\frac{1}{2}$ dia. to par....	$\frac{1}{2}$ dia. to 1-10 pr....	$\frac{1}{2}$ dia. to par....	$\frac{1}{2}$ dia. to par....	1 to $\frac{1}{2}$ dis....
Charleston.....	Par to $\frac{1}{2}$ prem....	Par to $\frac{1}{2}$ prem....	Par to $\frac{1}{2}$ prem....	Par to $\frac{1}{2}$ prem....	Par to $\frac{1}{2}$ prem....	No demand....
St. Louis.....	Par.....	Par.....	Par.....	Par.....	$\frac{1}{2}$ dis....	1 to $\frac{1}{2}$ dis....	2 to $\frac{1}{2}$ dis....
New Orleans.....	$\frac{1}{2}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$ prem....	$\frac{1}{2}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$ prem....	$\frac{1}{2}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$ prem....	$\frac{1}{2}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$ prem....	$\frac{1}{2}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$ prem....	Par to 1 p. c. dis....	$\frac{1}{2}$ to 1 p. c. dis....
Richmond.....	$\frac{1}{2}$ per cent prem....	$\frac{1}{2}$ per cent prem....	$\frac{1}{2}$ per cent prem....	$\frac{1}{2}$ per cent prem....	$\frac{1}{2}$ per cent dis....
Cincinnati.....	$\frac{1}{2}$ prem....	$\frac{1}{2}$ prem....	$\frac{1}{2}$ prem....	$\frac{1}{2}$ prem....	No report....
Pittsburgh.....	Par.....	Par.....	Par.....	Par.....	1 per cent dia....
Buffalo.....	$\frac{1}{2}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$ prem....	$\frac{1}{2}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$ prem....	Par.....	1 per cent dia....	No sale....
Norfolk.....	Par to $\frac{1}{2}$ dis....	Par to $\frac{1}{2}$ dis....	Par to $\frac{1}{2}$ dis....	Par to $\frac{1}{2}$ dis....	No sale....	No sale....
Wilmington.....	1 per cent prem....	1 per cent prem....	1 per cent prem....	$\frac{1}{2}$ prem....
Savannah.....	$\frac{1}{2}$ per cent prem....	$\frac{1}{2}$ per cent prem....	$\frac{1}{2}$ per cent prem....	$\frac{1}{2}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$ prem....	Par.....
Chicago.....	Par.....	Par.....	Par.....	Par.....	$\frac{1}{2}$ dis....
St. Louis.....	$\frac{1}{2}$ discount....	New Orleans.	Cincinnati.	Pittsburgh.	Buffalo.	San Francisco.
New York.....	1 per cent dia....	$\frac{1}{2}$ discount....	$\frac{1}{2}$ discount....	$\frac{1}{2}$ to 1 per cent dis....	$\frac{1}{2}$ discount....	discount....	4 to 8 per cent dis....
Philadelphia.....	1 $\frac{1}{2}$ dia. to par....	Par.....	Par.....	$\frac{1}{2}$ per cent dia....	$\frac{1}{2}$ dia....	$\frac{1}{2}$ dis....	6 to 8 per cent dia.*
Charleston.....	1 $\frac{1}{2}$ dia. to par....	1 $\frac{1}{2}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$ dis....	$\frac{1}{2}$ dia to par....	$\frac{1}{2}$ dia. to par....	7 to 1 per cent dis....
St. Louis.....	1 to $\frac{1}{2}$ dis....	No demand on any other places.
New Orleans.....	Par to per cent dis....	Par to $\frac{1}{2}$ dia....	$\frac{1}{2}$ discount....	$\frac{1}{2}$ to 1 per cent dis....	6 per cent dis....
Richmond.....	1 per cent dis....	1 $\frac{1}{2}$ discount....	Par.....	Par to 5 p. c. dis....
Cincinnati.....	Par.....	Par.....	Par.....	Par.....	2 per cent dis....
Pittsburgh.....	1 per cent dis....	1 per cent dis....	Par.....
Buffalo.....	No sale....	No sale....	No sale....
Norfolk.....	No sale....	No sale....	No sale....
Wilmington.....	None....	None....	None....
Savannah.....	None....	None....	None....
Chicago.....	$\frac{1}{2}$ discount....	1 per cent dis....	No sale....

Sixty days' sight drafts on London, 108 $\frac{1}{2}$; ditto on Paris, 5.064

CONDITION OF THE BANK OF MONTREAL.

RETURN OF THE AVERAGE AMOUNT OF LIABILITIES AND ASSETS OF THE BANK OF MONTREAL, FROM 1ST SEPTEMBER, 1853, TO 28TH FEBRUARY, 1854.

LIABILITIES.		September 30, 1853.	Feb. 28th, 1854.
Promissory notes in circulation, not bearing interest.		£1,062,372 17	£1,199,962 17
Bills of Exchange	
Bills and notes in circulation, bearing interest....	
Balances due to other banks		21,251 0	25,938 19
Cash deposits not bearing interest.		407,682 15	429,782 5
Cash deposits bearing interest.....		106,330 13	159,840 11
Total average liabilities		1,651,637 7	1,818,614 14
ASSETS.			
Coin and bullion		£198,098 13	£276,726 8
Landed or other property of the bank		39,421 18	38,421 18
Government securities	3,000 0
Promissory notes or bills of other banks		35,315 1	55,255 1
Balances due from other banks		476,885 2	270,880 19
Notes and bills discounted, or other debts due to the bank, not included above.....		2,042,714 12	2,366,607 14
Total average of assets.....		2,719,435 8	3,010,892 1

The pence are omitted in the above table, for convenience, which will make a slight variation in the summing up.

LIABILITY AND RESOURCES OF BANKS IN SOUTH CAROLINA.

A TABLE SHOWING THE PROPORTION OF THE LIABILITY AND RESOURCES OF THE SEVERAL BANKS IN THE STATE OF SOUTH CAROLINA TO THEIR RESPECTIVE CAPITALS, AS PER STATEMENT OF FEBRUARY 1st, 1854:—

	Bank of the State.....	S. W. R. R. Bank.....	Planters' and Merchants' B.	Union Bank.	State Bank..	Bank of S. C.	Bank of Charleston.	Farmers' and Exchange B.
Circulation	48	60	44	43	60	37	68	93
Net profits.....	2	8	11	5	11	6	10	4
Balances due banks this State..	7	19	8	3	..	6	9	2
Balances due banks other States	4	3	29	3	..	3	25	6
Deposits, &c.....	14	27	30	31	45	25	18	18
Specie....	3	9	12	12	17	2	10	22
Real estate....	3	3	2	4	7	4	1	2
Bills of banks of this State	3	4	5	4	39	7	2	5
Bills of banks of other States....	4	1
Balances due from banks of this State.....	1	.	1	2	.	2	8	4
Balances due from banks of other States.....	1	4	1	3	.	3	9	3
Discounts, personal security....	74	23	115	84	62	72	71	43
Discounts on pledges of its own stock	28	1	4	1	4	1	..
Discounts on pledges of other stocks	9	17	4	13	3	6	1	..
Domestic exchange.....	15	58	44	54	93	61	83	139
Foreign exchange	4	5	2	..	5	..	16	3
Bonds	13	12	8	..	23	7	6	..
Invested in stocks.....	13	18	17	1	1	3	21	..
Suspended debt and in suit....	8	10	3	4	1	1	2	..
Invested in every other way ...	5	21	1	6

	Merchant's Bank of Chicago.....	Commercial Bk. Columbia.....	Planters' Bank of Fairfield.....	Bank of Chester.	Bank of Hamburg.....	Bank of Newbury.....	Exchange Bank of Columbia..	Bank of Camden.....
Circulation	132	66	139	99	200	170	103	113
Net profits.....	15	3	5	3	27	4	1	10
Balances due banks this State.	1	1	2
Balances due b'ks other States	..	3	4	3	4
Deposits, &c.....	4	19	24	15	12	7	7	7
Specie.....	13	12	16	32	28	8	14	11
Real estate.....	6	2	5	1	..	1
Bills of banks of this State....	3	1	..	5	1	1	2	..
Bills of banks of other States..	2	3	6
Balances due from banks of this State.....	12	16	9	111	18	1
Balances due from banks of other States.....	5	1	3	..	4	2	1	13
Discounts, personal security...	80	103	58	134	46	44	22	38
Discounts on pledges of its own stock.....	16	9	6
Discounts on pledges of other stocks.....	..	2	80	1	1	2
Domestic exchange.....	107	57	180	29	100	143	176	133
Foreign exchange.....
Bonds.....	2	..
Invested in stock.....	20
Suspended debt and in suit ...	2	3	3	..	2	5	..	5
Invested in every other way ..	19	..	1	..	33	67	..	25

FOREIGN EXCHANGES.

The following communication on the par of exchange between the United States and England, is taken from the *London Economist*.

The present method of calculating the exchange upon London, in the United States, seems to me to be a very roundabout process, when a very simple one would suffice. So long as the country was a dependency of Great Britain, or conducted its transactions in sterling money, the mode of reckoning the exchange by a fluctuating premium was right enough; but when the country adopted a currency of dollars, and made the dollar the integer of account, the exchange ought surely to have been reckoned from that date at so many pence to the dollar, the same as in all other countries that have a dollar currency.

What does the quotation at New York of "exchange on London 8 premium" mean? It means 4s. 2d. sterling per dollar; but to obtain the result you have to start from the nominal par of exchange of \$4 44 per pound, then add 8 per cent, which gives a net exchange of \$4 80 per pound, which is equivalent to 4s. 2d. per dollar. How much easier it would be to call it 4s. 2d. at once! Have the Americans any substantial reason for retaining the present method? If they have a particular penchant for the "premium," then they should make the par 4s. 2d., which is tolerably near the intrinsic par, and upon which a half-penny per dollar, upwards or downwards, is exactly one per cent; or they should make it \$5 per pound, which is nearer the intrinsic par, and upon which 5 cents, upwards or downwards, are exactly one per cent—a vast improvement upon the running decimal .044!

The most simple process in the calculation of the value of sterling bills would be to quote a certain number of cents per pound sterling, viz:—

Instead of 8 per cent premium.....	quote 4.80 per pound.
" 8½ " "	" 4.81 "
" 8¾ " "	" 4.82 "
" 8⅞ " "	" 4.83 "
" 9 " "	" 4.84 "

This latter is about the value of the pound sterling or English gold sovereign.

This mode, or something near it, is adopted with other European bills. For instance, we quote 5.20 on Paris; which is five francs twenty centimes in Paris, per dollar paid in New York.

On Hamburg the quotation is 36½ to 36¾, which is so many cents (U. S.) *per marc banco*. The latter is money of account, valued at 17½d. sterling, or a fraction over 36 cents.

The same rule applied to quotations and calculations of sterling bills would simplify the matter greatly.

ISSUE OF AN INCONVERTIBLE CURRENCY IN RUSSIA.

It is said that the Russian government have determined upon an issue of 60,000,000 of paper rouble notes, for the payment of the war expenses; and we have reason to believe that the report is substantially true. It is, moreover, in accordance with the traditional policy of Russia. The heavy expenditure which was incurred in the wars in which she was engaged during the latter part of the last and the commencement of the present century, was, in great part, met in the same way. But now let us see what formerly happened from this course! The value of the rouble, which represents a silver coin, varies from 38d to 40d British money, according to the exchanges. In order to meet the exigencies of the state expenditure, so excessive was the issue of these notes in former times, that their value in exchange with England represented, not 38d, but sank by steady, regular gradation, as one fresh issue succeeded another, to 30d, to 24d, to 18d, and finally to 10½d, and for many years the rouble, instead of representing an intrinsic value of 38d to 40d, circulated for 10½d to 11½d. But the scheme is that they shall be inconvertible as formerly; and 60,000,000 rouble notes, about £10,000,000, are to be added to the present circulation. Of course, depreciation will rapidly take place; the rouble will again soon come to represent, in the place of 38d or 40d, only 30d, or less, just as these issues may be made in excess.

The people of Russia, of course, cannot help themselves. From the moment that Russia adopts this step, foreign merchants having transactions with Russian subjects, should invariably conduct their business in the denomination of the currency of their own country, in place of that of Russia, and stipulate to be paid in bills upon London, Paris, or Hamburg, computed accordingly. No matter then how low the exchange may fall in Russia, the debtor must provide whatever number of roubles is required to purchase a bill for the necessary amount expressed in the stipulated currency. If, under such circumstances, foreigners trade with Russia on any other terms, they will be subject to any depreciation which may happen during the time the transaction is in progress, or before they obtain payment for goods consigned to that country.—*London Economist*.

INCREASE OF TAXABLE PROPERTY IN PENNSYLVANIA.

The following statement which we extract from the final report of the Board of Revenue Commissioners for Pennsylvania, will show the aggregate increase of taxable property returned by the county commissioners, in each period of three years since 1845, and the amounts added to such property by the successive boards, in the process of equalization:—

Increase of returns from 1845 to 1848	\$42,375,828
“ “ 1848 to 1851	29,858,371
“ “ 1851 to 1854	36,827,892
Amount added by the Board of 1845	8,759,625
“ “ “ “ 1848	7,114,274
“ “ “ “ 1851	6,883,153
“ “ “ “ 1854	5,307,533

It will be seen that the additions made by each Board are less than those made by the preceding one. This is a natural result, supposing the adjustments to be by the operations of the system approaching equality.

The whole amount of taxable property is now 531,370,454, making an increase in three years of \$40,371,625.

CALCULATIONS IN REGARD TO COUNTING GOLD COIN.

A writer in the *Boston Journal* makes the following curious calculations:—

The enormous sum of \$204,000,000 in gold has been received at the mint in Philadelphia from California, from the first discovery of the precious metal to December 1, 1853. Now in order to give some idea to the general reader of the immense amount of \$204,000,000, I will merely state that allowing each silver dollar to weigh one ounce avoirdupois, sixteen to the pound, the weight would be 12,750,000 lbs., or 6,375 tons, allowing 2,000 lbs. to the ton. To carry this weight it would require 6,375 wagons, containing a ton each, or \$32,000. Now suppose each vehicle, drawn by one horse, to occupy a space of 25 feet, they would extend in a continuous line a fraction short of 30 miles. In order to count such a vast sum of money as this, very few persons have any idea of the time it would require, without making calculations to that effect. Having myself asked several individuals familiar with figures how long it would take to count the sum above mentioned, they have so widely differed in time that one could scarcely repress a smile at the result. Now to ascertain the fact which may be made as plain as A B C, we will suppose a person to count 60 of these silver dollars a minute, 3,600 an hour, 43,200 a day of 12 hours each, or (Sunday* included) 15,768,000 a year. I say, to count this stupendous amount of money in silver dollars, it would require a fraction short of 13 years.

THE MONEY OF CALCULATION AND OF CONSUMPTION.

The currency of a country, (says our cotemporary of the *Wall Street Journal*.) and its subdivisions, ought conveniently to subserve two ends—there should be the money of calculation and the money of consumption. The accountant and the large dealer wants the power to range his amounts and see their value at a glance, and the decimal system is the only one which will conveniently answer his purposes. The people of England have toiled long enough over the multiplication-table and Cocker, turning pounds into shillings and pence, and now they condescend to take the decimal monetary notation from America. Something more is wanted, however, than mere facility of calculation. The consumer naturally in his transactions subdivides by indefinite halving. The necessity for the half and quarter eagle, and the half-quarter and eighth of a dollar, is more apparent to the buyer than the tenth or hundredth fraction of the gold or silver unit; it attends him with every pound and half-pound, bushel and half bushel he purchases; it is the expression of a natural want.

WHAT ARE CONSOLS?

This question, which it is barely possible every young man who reads the *Merchants' Magazine* may not understand, is thus briefly and correctly answered by our cotemporary of the *Wall Street Journal*:—

The term is an abbreviation of the word "consolidated," and to explain what they are it is only necessary to state, that at various times the British government has borrowed divers sums of money, paying different rates of interest; that occasionally the stocks issued as evidences of these various debts have been taken up or called in, and a new stock issued in their stead, payable at one fixed time, and bearing one fixed rate of interest; that such a stock is called a consolidated stock, or consol, and to distinguish it from others the rate of interest it bears is generally mentioned—as three per cent consols, four per cent consols, &c.

SUPPRESSION OF SMALL NOTES IN VIRGINIA.

The Legislature of Virginia has passed a law prohibiting the circulation of small notes in that State. One of its provisions subjects any person whose name appears on the face of any note of less denomination than five dollars, to a penalty five times the amount of the note, which may be recovered by any one who may proceed against the person appearing to be the issuer of the note. The act goes into operation on the first of June, thus giving three months for those who have small notes in circulation to withdraw them.

JOURNAL OF INSURANCE.

THE NEW ENGLAND MUTUAL LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY.

The tenth annual report of the Directors of the New England Mutual Life Insurance Company, which we give below, will be read with interest by all who are interested in the economy of life insurance. This report was prepared by the President, the Hon. JUDGE PHILLIPS, whose investigations of the principles, and experience in the practical workings of life insurance, are doubtless unsurpassed by any individual in this country. He has thoroughly studied the subject in all its bearings, and has connected with him in the direction a body of men whose reputation for intelligence and integrity stands deservedly high in the community in which they reside. The report is a model of its kind, and exhibits the affairs of the institution in a most satisfactory light.

We have no hesitation in saying that we regard the New England Mutual Life Insurance Company as one of the few which are entitled to the confidence of the public; and if circumstances rendered it necessary to take out a policy on our own life, for the benefit of a family or to secure a creditor, we know of no company to which we should apply with so much certainty and confidence that our intentions would in the end be realized. This report exhibits the operations of the company for the ten years it has been in existence, and furnishes data that will be of great use in the organization of similar corporations.

ABSTRACT OF THE BUSINESS OF THE NEW ENGLAND MUTUAL LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY,
DURING THE TEN YEARS ENDING NOV. 30, 1858.

	*Policies issued.	Policies termi- nated.	†Amount insured.	Amount termi- nated.	Amount at risk at the end of the year.	Premium received.	Premium returned.
1844.....	343	3	\$948,110	\$2,000	\$946,110	\$23,499
1845.....	459	46	1,110,274	123,640	1,932,744	44,948
1846.....	435	92	985,225	182,740	2,735,229	63,400	\$915
1847.....	461	180	897,840	398,975	3,234,094	80,069	2,702
1848.....	413	178	1,006,990	331,100	3,791,344	90,544	3,009
1849.....	557	251	1,125,332	577,780	4,338,896	108,479	4,288
1850.....	335	192	733,880	361,780	4,710,496	119,144	4,271
1851.....	243	242	806,725	512,030	5,005,191	119,674	3,306
1852.....	488	323	1,041,100	661,712	5,384,578	134,563	5,403
1853.....	502	385	1,116,150	714,350	5,786,379	149,657	4,327

	Interest received.	Losses.	Expenses.	Interest paid on guaranty fund.	Accum- ulated fund at end of each year.	Per cent- age of dis- tribution returned on pr'm.	Amount of distrib- ution.
1844.....	\$2,198	\$3,535	\$18,626
1845.....	4,159	\$1,000	4,405	\$2,500	63,369
1846.....	7,894	17,900	8,081	3,500	104,313
1847.....	11,376	11,000	7,120	4,500	170,339
1848.....	13,383	32,100	7,138	3,500	223,995	20	\$45,890
1849.....	17,453	32,830	8,196	3,500	258,673
1850.....	22,253	39,417	8,271	3,500	344,611
1851.....	23,217	38,050	9,229	3,500	433,416
1852.....	28,026	37,525	10,276	3,500	539,301
1853.....	36,328	55,855	12,225	3,500	649,380	30	141,146

* This column includes only those policies on which the premium has been paid; others made out but not taken, are not included.

† Fractions of a dollar in the above aggregates omitted.

‡ Extra amount paid in 1843, to make up \$1,000 deficiency of payment of interest in 1847.

REPORT OF THE DIRECTORS OF THE NEW ENGLAND MUTUAL LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY
TO THE MEMBERS, AT THE ANNUAL MEETING, DEC. 12, 1853.

This company having now been in operation during ten years, the time arrives for the second distribution of its surplus funds; and members will naturally desire to be informed specifically of the method adopted in making it. By the charter, and according to the fundamental principle of such a company, the distribution is limited to the *surplus* remaining after reserving a fund, which, all necessary expenses being deducted, will be sufficient, with the net future premiums on the existing policies, to pay all the losses that will accrue on these policies. Whenever a company makes an excessive distribution, it thereby not merely takes a step towards insolvency, but in fact at the time actually becomes insolvent; for it has not funds sufficient to meet its liabilities. It does not follow that it may not continue for a longer or shorter period to pay its losses and discharge its other liabilities; for a corporation or partnership, no less than an individual, may continue to meet its engagements a longer or shorter time after becoming actually insolvent, according to the degree to which its managers may deceive themselves or others.

The first and great question which every member will ask in this case is, "What amount of funds must be reserved to enable the company to meet the losses and future incidental liabilities on its existing policies?" In other words, "What fund is it necessary to reserve in order that the company shall not be rendered actually insolvent by making a distribution—or in making what is sometimes deceptively called 'a dividend of profits?'" This question is answered by ascertaining whether another company, or an individual of adequate responsibility, could afford to take its effects and assume its liabilities.

It is evident that the future premiums to which it is entitled by its policies will not be sufficient to meet its liabilities, if it has been in operation for any considerable time. Suppose, for example, a company to have been in operation for twenty years. Take the case of an assured who was insured for his whole life, at the commencement, at the age of twenty-six, for the usual annual premium of about two dollars for one hundred, and accordingly is now forty-six, when the usual annual premium for a like policy is about four dollars. The company is entitled to demand of him only two dollars per annum. But, admitting him still to be a good life, they could not get another company to take him off their hands for a less premium than four dollars per annum. The question then is, what is the present value of a contract of a person forty-six years of age, to pay two dollars per annum during his life, and what is the value of a contract of the same person to pay twice that sum per annum during his life, and it is evident that another company will not assume his policy and agree to pay his representatives one hundred dollars at his decease, unless the first underwriters will pay them the difference between the present values of those two annual premiums. This sum is, therefore, to be reserved for this policy by the company which is making a distribution. Accordingly, in estimating the amount of a distribution of surplus, the same computation is to be made upon every subsisting policy, to ascertain the resulting amount to be reserved on each; and if this is not done, and that amount is not reserved, the company thereby directly renders itself insolvent.

It is to be kept in mind, that this computation should be made upon the actual rate of premiums for insurance. If you take a table of mortality and compute what present sum put at interest at three, four, or any other rate per cent, will amount to one hundred dollars at the probable decease of a person of forty-six years of age, it will be less than that which is necessary, to provide for the payment of a policy upon his life for the same amount, since in computing premiums of insurance a margin must be added of some sixteen to twenty per cent for incidental expenses and contingencies. Distributions are understood to have been made, in some instances, without any such margin, which is, in fact, proposing to assess future members of a company for the benefit of the present ones, to whom the distribution is made. The computation ought evidently to be made upon premiums that it would be necessary actually to pay for re-insurance; and our present distribution is so computed, as was also the former one.

We have supposed the policy on which the computation is made to be on a good insurable life, for one of the same age. But more or less of the lives in a company have deteriorated by disease and infirmity as well as by age. No insurance company conducted with skill and prudence would take all the risks off the hands of another company at the tabular rates for good lives. It will be seen, accordingly, that we have made an additional reservation on this account.

Among twenty-four hundred lives dispersed about the world by sea and land, in all climates, it is probable that some have dropped, of whose death notice has not been received at the date of the distribution, and this probability is the subject of an estimated additional reservation.

Again, though the net funds of the company, represented by the balance-sheet to be about \$650,000, are supposed to be fully equal to that amount at their present marketable and available value, yet a future depreciation of some of the investments is possible, for which an allowance is made in the present distribution, as was done in the former.

Our charter provides for a reserved guaranty fund to replace the present one when paid off. Reservations were made in 1848 which proved to be equal to one-half of this fund, and the additional reservation is now made out of the receipts of the last five years, for the remaining half of the \$50,000 constituting that fund.

Those members who, having been in the company at the former distribution, contributed to the reservations then made for this fund, are, by the charter of the company, entitled to a preference on the income of that reservation, in making the present distribution, and the present members who continue to be such at the next one, will be entitled to a like preference on the income of the same fund according to the successive distributions to which they may have before directly or indirectly contributed, and so on indefinitely, which privilege will have, in some degree, an alleviating operation in favor of the better lives, which must in the event contribute to make up the deficiency of the premiums paid by the poorer lives, to meet the losses on them. This was the object of this provision of the charter.

The data of the present distribution accordingly stands thus:—

Reservation for reinsurance.....	\$382,389 82
Estimated deterioration of lives.....	87,018 92
Estimate of losses not heard of, and contingencies of investments.....	29,611 18
Interest on Guaranty Fund, payable in January, 1854.....	8,500 00
Guaranty Capital.....	50,000 00
Preference to contributors to the Guaranty Fund at the former distribution, being 2 per cent on \$288,417, the amount of their premiums.	5,768 84
Aggregate.....	\$508,238 21
Accumulated Fund.....	\$649,879 43
Reserved Fund.....	508,238 21
Amount of the general distribution.....	\$141,146 22

Being 80 per cent on \$470,164 07, the amount of premiums paid by the present members from December 1, 1848, to December 1, 1853.

A similar computation was adopted in making the former distribution, after due consideration, and the directors have adhered to it in the present instance, because they still think the method a proper one, and that any less reservation would not be prudent, and also because it seemed to be obligatory to make this distribution no less favorably to the stability of the company, since to do otherwise would be unfairly to sacrifice the advantage already gained; and which all who shall continue in the company or become members are interested to maintain.

The distribution is settled, first, by credit on premiums; second, by reduction of the future rate of premium on the policy; third, by adding to the amount of the policy; or, fourth, by payment in cash, as each member may prefer one or the other mode of settlement, where the distribution has not been pledged to some other specific object. The company is not in the practice of issuing scrip for dividends.

As the accounts have been examined and have been verified by vouchers, the directors can, with confidence, attest to the accuracy of the above statement of the financial condition and resources of the company. Though the distribution is larger than had been anticipated, members will plainly see that the directors do not propose to sacrifice the future to the present, and rely upon a subsequent surplus of premiums to make up for an excessive present distribution.

In order to show the adequacy of the rate of premium permanently to sustain the company, there ought to be at present a very considerable surplus for distribution arising from the circumstance that the present rate of interest on investments, in the United States, from which a part of the surplus is derived, is higher, by two or three per cent, than it probably will be during the lives of some of the present members of

the company, and it is evidently essential that the rate of premium should be established in reference to such probable reduction of the rate of interest nearly to the European rate. Estimating in reference to the medium magnitude of the concerns of the company, for the past five years, this single consideration ought, as the above data show, to give a present surplus for distribution from forty to sixty thousand dollars.

The present distribution is further augmented by reason of the rate of mortality among our members during the past five years, especially in the earlier part of the period, having been less than what is to be ordinarily expected on lives of the same age subject to similar risks, and also by reason of the investment of the funds of the company having proved to be advantageous.

So far as any economy in conducting the business of the company may have contributed towards the present surplus, the directors hope the same cause will operate hereafter.

The extinguishment of the guaranty stock of fifty thousand dollars, of which the charter now admits, will, on the other hand, operate in favor of the distribution of 1858 by about three thousand dollars, viz., the difference for five years, of the interest of seven per cent heretofore paid on that amount, and the interest which would accrue during that period on the investment of the same amount.

The attention of members of the company and applicants for insurance has heretofore been called to the different ways of settling the premium otherwise than by annual payments for the whole life, viz., by a single premium, or by annual premiums for ten years. That more members have not availed themselves of one or the other of these methods, must be owing to the practical effect not being well understood. One result of settling by a single premium is, that the member is thus exonerated from going on paying further premium after he has paid in an amount, including interest and deducting distributions, equal to that insured by his policy; the other result is, that if a note is given for the single premium on interest, at the rate of four per cent per annum, on which payments are annually made on account of interest and principal, equal, at least, to what would have been the tabular annual premium for the whole life, and the life drops before arriving at the average age, according to the general mortality, which there is precisely an equal chance that it may—that is, of ten lives five will have so dropped—then something will remain due upon the note when the life drops. The earlier it drops, the greater amount will of course remain due to be deducted in settling the loss. But the probability is very great that a proportionally small amount will remain due in that case. If the member considers himself a good average life, it seems to be the more prudent and satisfactory way to settle by a single premium, even if he has to make an auxiliary time policy to compensate for the deduction of what may remain due on the single premium note in case of his early decease. It is immaterial to the other members whether any one or any number settle by single premium, or all pay annual premiums for the whole life. In whatever way the premium is paid, the longer lives must make up the deficiency of payments by the shorter ones. The constitution of our company, our rate of premium, and mode of making distributions, are such as to lighten this extra burden, which must, by the very nature of insurance, fall with greater or less weight upon the more fortunate lives, just as in marine insurance the more fortunate risks must contribute for the losses on the less fortunate. The question is, therefore, one which concerns merely the individual member himself, without affecting the company generally.

The payment of the premium for the whole life during the first ten years has, in some degree, a similar operation to that of the settling by a single premium. In whichever way the premium is settled, the right to share in the distributions will be the same; the member will be entitled to them, after his whole premium has been paid, in the same manner as if he had paid his premium by annual payments during his whole life.

Members holding term policies may have them converted into policies for another term or for life, if the risk continues to be a good one.

The directors, chosen exclusively on the part of the stockholders who will retire from the direction if the guaranty stock shall be paid off by vote of the present meeting as proposed, take this occasion to congratulate the members of the company on the eminent success and usefulness of the institution hitherto, and the very flourishing condition in which they shall leave it.

The following is an exhibit of the business of the company during the five years ending November 30, 1858, as reported to the directors by their committee, Messrs. Perkins and Hubbard:—

1,602 Policies outstanding December 1, 1848.....		\$3,791,344 12
1,723 Policies issued during the four years to December 1, 1852.....	\$3,706,537 00	
2,225 502 Policies issued the past year.....	1,116,150 00	4,822,687 00
3,827		\$8,614,031 12
1,008 Policies terminated during the four years to Dec. 1, 1852.....	\$2,113,302 50	
1,393 385 Policies terminated the past year....	714,350 00	2,827,652 50
2,484 Policies outstanding Dec. 1, 1853.....		\$5,786,378 62
Amount of policies that have terminated in loss during the four years to December 1, 1852.....		\$147,872 00
Amount of policies that have terminated in loss during the past year		55,355 00
Total amount during the past five years.....		\$203,227 00
Received for premium during the four years to Dec. 1, 1852.....		\$481,860 86
Received for premium the past year.....		149,656 90
Total premium during the past five years.....		\$631,517 76
Premium returned during the four years to December 1, 1852.....	\$17,270 21	
Premium returned the past year.....	4,826 99	22,097 20
Net premium received during the past five years.....		\$609,490 56
Received for interest, (including that on guaranty fund,) dividends, and charge for policies, during the four years to December 1, 1852.....	\$90,951 09	
Received the past year.....	38,327 93	127,279 02
Total amount received during the past five years.....		\$736,699 58
Amount of losses paid during the five years to Dec. 1, 1853, (\$147,872 to Dec. 1, 1852, and \$55,355 the past year).....	\$203,227 00	
Amount of interest paid on guaranty fund, \$17,500, (less reserved, Dec. 1848, \$3,500).....	14,600 00	
Amount of rent and salaries to Dec. 1, 1853, (\$17,850 to Dec. 1, 1852, and \$5,100 the past year).....	22,950 00	
Amount of compensation to agents, computation of tables, advertising, printing, stationery, doctors' fees, and all other incidental expenses to Dec. 1, 1853, (\$18,123 73 to Dec. 1, 1852, and \$7,124 49 the past year).....	25,248 22	
		265,425 22
Total.....		\$471,274 36
Amount of accumulated fund for the five years ending Dec. 1, 1853, exclusive of guaranty fund.....		\$471,274 36
Amount of reservation made December 1, 1848.....		178,105 07
Aggregate.....		649,379 43
Property (besides guaranty fund) Dec. 1, 1852.....	\$539,301 08	
Increase the past year.....	110,078 35	\$649,379 43
The property consists of—		
Loans on mortgages.....	\$285,873 75	Real estate..... \$5,000 00
Bank and other stocks....	165,679 10	Premium notes..... 59,273 25
Railroad bonds.....	18,950 00	Loans secured by collateral 154,360 96
City securities.....	58,000 00	Cash in Merchants' Bank.. 4,349 88
Total.....		\$701,486 94

The company owe as follows:—

Guaranty capital	\$50,000 00	
Balance of first dividend	2,107 51	
		\$52,107 51
Total		\$649,879 43

The following is a list of the directors of this company: Willard Phillips, Geo. H. Kuhn, Charles Browne, Sewell Tappan, Marshall P. Wilder, Charles P. Curtis, Thomas A. Dexter, Wm. Perkins, N. F. Cunningham, Charles Hubbard, A. W. Thaxter, Jr.

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

THE IRON TRADE OF GREAT BRITAIN.

We have already alluded to a series of valuable papers on the Iron Trade of the World, as in course of publication in the *London Morning Chronicle*. A number of that paper contains still further information, and particularly the following tables, which embody a highly interesting view of the iron trade of Great Britain since 1806. It will be seen that in the year named, the total number of furnaces was 216, and the production, 243,851 tons; whereas in 1852, the total number of furnaces was 655, and the production, 2,701,000 tons.

RETROSPECT SINCE 1806, AND THE INCREASED PROPORTION WHICH SCOTLAND BEARS TO THE WHOLE:—

FURNACES IN BLAST, AND PRODUCTION IN GREAT BRITAIN.

	Furnaces.	Product'n. Tons.		Furnaces.	Product'n. Tons.
1806.....	216	243,851	1848.....	623	1,998,558
1825.....	374	581,867	1852.....	655	2,701,000
1840.....	402	1,396,400			

OF WHICH THERE WERE IN SCOTLAND—

	Furnaces in blast.	Production.	Price.
1806.....	18	22,840 tons	£7 0 0
1813.....	18	23,450 "	8 0 0
1823.....	22	30,500 "	4 15 0
1838.....	31	44,000 "	2 16 0
1843.....	62	248,300 "	2 5 0
1853.....	114	740,000 "	3 1 6

DURING THE LAST TEN YEARS.

	Furnaces in blast.	Production.	Stock.
1844.....	73	295,000 tons	190,000 tons
1845.....	94	400,000 "	230,000 "
1846.....	97	580,000 "	145,000 "
1847.....	89	540,000 "	90,000 "
1848.....	103	600,000 "	100,000 "
1849.....	113	692,000 "	195,000 "
1850.....	105	580,000 "	230,000 "
1851.....	114	770,000 "	360,000 "
1852.....	113	775,000 "	450,000 "
1853.....	114	740,000 "	270,000 "

PRODUCTION OF MALLEABLE IRON IN SCOTLAND.

1845.....	35,000 tons	1849.....	80,000 tons
1846.....	45,000 "	1850.....	80,000 "
1847.....	60,000 "	1851.....	90,000 "
1848.....	90,000 "	1852.....	90,000 "

AVERAGE PRICES OF PIG AND BAR IRON FOR THE LAST TWENTY YEARS.

	Pig Iron.	Bar Iron.		Pig Iron.	Bar Iron.
1834	£4 5 0	£6 18 6	1844	£2 14 9	£6 2 6
1835	4 10 0	6 10 0	1845	3 15 0	9 4 0
1836	6 18 0	10 12 0	1846	3 11 8	9 18 0
1837	4 0 0	9 12 6	1847	3 5 0	9 18 0
1838	4 0 0	9 5 0	1848	2 4 4	6 11 6
1839	4 10 0	9 14 6	1849	2 6 0	5 17 6
1840	3 15 0	8 7 6	1850	2 4 7	5 8 0
1841	3 0 0	7 4 0	1851	2 0 0	5 7 6
1842	2 10 0	5 19 0	1852	2 5 0	9 5 0
1843	2 5 0	5 0 0	1853	3 1 6	9 0 0

SHIPMENTS FROM SCOTLAND.

	Foreign. Tons.	Coastwise. Tons.	Total. Tons.
1845	54,671	183,228	237,897
1846	119,100	257,841	376,941
1847	143,460	227,005	370,465
1848	162,151	227,833	389,984
1849	153,183	221,943	375,126
1850	134,579	190,082	324,659
1851	192,670	260,088	452,758
1852	224,097	199,971	424,068
1853	314,270	302,038	616,308

EXPORT OF TEAS TO THE UNITED STATES.

We are indebted to our attentive correspondents, Messrs. King & Co., for the sub-joined statement of the export of teas to the United States.

Year.	Vessels.	Black.	Green.	Total.
1850-1.....	65	13,564,746	15,215,707	28,780,453
1851-2.....	68	13,361,513	20,965,915	34,327,428
1852-3.....	73	14,431,596	23,529,161	40,960,757
From 1st July to 24th December, 1853.		2,935,062	8,093,636	11,028,698
December 1, Bay State.....		59,400	430,900	490,300
“ 11, Ala.....		50,477	436,864	487,341
“ 28, Channing.....		606,278	606,278
January 3, Highflyer.....		324,742	69,158	393,900
“ 14, Gazelle.....		93,000	834,000	927,000
“ 19, Anstiss.....		67,900	539,200	607,100
From 1st July 1853, to 24th Jan., 1854.		3,530,581	11,010,136	14,540,617
To same date last year.....		3,591,732	21,216,705	29,808,437

IMPORTS OF BREADSTUFFS INTO GREAT BRITAIN FROM IRELAND.

THE QUANTITY OF CORN, MEAL, AND FLOUR IMPORTED INTO GREAT BRITAIN FROM IRELAND IN THE FOLLOWING YEARS:—

	Wheat. Qrs.	Oats. Qrs.	Barley. Qrs.	Beans and peas. Qrs.	Oatmeal. Cwt.	Wheat flour. Cwt.
1830	337,641	1,226,486	189,745	21,573	672,265
1835	340,535	1,462,581	156,242	27,682	566,006	1,124,343
1840	92,990	1,397,500	95,954	15,976	989,500	280,700
1845	371,000	1,678,000	92,000	14,300	1,058,000	1,421,000
1846	187,300	956,000	93,000	17,000	554,000	725,000
1847	125,700	493,000	47,500	27,000	330,500	211,000
1848	146,000	1,081,000	79,700	14,700	936,000	561,000
1849	94,500	652,000	43,500	24,600	672,000	393,500
1850	76,000	642,400	51,000	20,400	786,000	397,300
1851	45,867	728,656	44,083	28,774	649,502	172,372
1852	20,700	1,047,800	108,900	30,100	971,000	118,900
1853	19,600	1,000,000	124,100	24,100	843,000	192,400

COMMERCIAL IMPORTANCE OF WILMINGTON, N. C.

A correspondent of the *Journal of Commerce*, writing from Wilmington, communicates a statement of the exports from that port for the year 1853, for the purpose of calling attention to the place of persons of capital who would like to engage in mercantile pursuits, in a healthy city of increasing commercial importance. He says:—

The exports of Wilmington in 1840 were less than \$1,560,000, in 1853 more than \$7,000,000—with a banking capital of only one and a half millions of dollars, but which will probably be increased to two and a half or three millions by legislative enactment next year. The Manchester Railroad, after the completion of the Great Pedee bridge, prior to 1st September, will bring us next year 75,000 bales of South Carolina cotton, to pay for which, cash buyers must come from your city and other places. At 10 cents per pound, this article will add \$2,500,000 to the exports next year. The freight on cotton from this place is $\frac{1}{4}$ ct. per lb., while from Charleston it is $\frac{1}{2}$ ct. This will always be the case, as the great bulk of our exports are naval stores, which, from their great weight, pay a heavy freight. Turpentine, per barrel, to New York, at this time, 70 cents.

In four months from this time the Deep River Canal will be opened, and we expect the article of coal will be exported from our port next year to a very great extent. A very gratifying circumstance to our place is, that in the last year our Bar has deepened from 12 to 14 feet water on ordinary high tides. This is owing to the enterprise of our merchants in subscribing \$60,000 to the works on our bars, which we hope Congress will make additional appropriations to. The Senate has voted to us \$200,000, but the bill appears to sleep in the House of Representatives.

EXPORTS FROM THE PORT OF WILMINGTON FOR THE YEAR ENDING DEC. 31, 1853.

	Coastwise.	Foreign.
Spirits turpentine.....	113,817	1,467
Turpentine, crude.....	51,828	21,454
Rosin.....	369,770	10,689
Tar.....	21,609	4,521
Pitch.....	5,919	1,904
Pine or rosin oil.....	463	20
Timber, P. P.....	1,030,444	85,154
Lumber, P. P.....	25,646,792	12,511,158
Peanuts, or ground nuts.....	69,624	87
Paper, news.....	2,120
Corn.....	1,709	1,250
Flour.....	1,849	56
Wheat.....	302
Cotton.....	7,515
“ sheeting.....	2,320
“ yarn.....	2,581
“ warp.....	122
“ waste.....	317
Wool.....	182
Shooks.....	200
Varnish.....	23
Treenails.....	5,500
Laths.....	13,500
Staves.....	154,782
Rice.....	1,724	252
Rice, rough.....	102,917

MISCELLANEOUS ARTICLES. Dried fruit, 67 hhds., 972 bbls., 159 boxes, 181 bags. Fur, 10 boxes, 1 hhd., 2 bales. Hides, 711, and 236 bundles. Sheep skins, 43 bundles. Rags, 72 bales. Tobacco, 7 hhds., 286 boxes. Leather, 154 sides, 55 bundles. Feathers, 6 bags. Wax, 20 hhds., 7 casks, 17 bags, 75 bbls., 33 boxes. Bacon, 6 hhds. Copper ore, 1,216 bbls., 36 boxes. Pipes, 21 boxes, 3 casks, 4 bbls. Sugar, 7 hhds., 491 boxes. Old iron, 693 tons, 8 hhds., 3 tierces, 12 bbls. Varnish, 6 bbls. Molasses, 85 hhds. Brandy, 12 bbls., 54 pipes. Eggs, 2 bbls. Coal, 2 bbls. Tallow, 9 bbls. Old copper, 7 hhds., 1 box. Reeds, 173 bundles. Batts, 15 bales. Merchandise, 347 boxes, 2 bales, 21 bbls., 10 hhds. Pine wood, 20 cords. Nails, 37 kegs. Tea, 1 chest. Fish, 64 bbls.

COMMERCE OF HONOLULU, SANDWICH ISLANDS.

The following statement of imports, exports, receipts, etc., at the custom-house at the port of Honolulu, Sandwich Islands, from the year 1843 to 1852, inclusive, is taken from the *Polynesian* and the custom house records :—

	Value of imports.	Gross duties.	Re exported.	Return duties.
1843	\$228,388 38	\$6,701 84	\$66,618 17	\$1,670 41
1844	350,357 12	10,326 13	60,054 06	1,501 34
1845	546,941 72	21,536 94	67,010 93	2,098 82
1846	598,382 24	58,447 78	62,325 74	21,667 02
1847	710,138 52	101,512 25	55,208 07	56,991 17
1848	608,618 73	142,357 73	83,551 55	90,148 27
1849	729,739 44	222,118 99	107,102 07	156,098 16
1850	1,035,058 70	202,603 61	46,529 72	110,687 12
1851	1,751,671 93	189,090 19	82,273 27	63,102 81
1852	715,295 27	135,428 77	63,661 18	52,929 70
Total	\$7,265,587 05	\$1,085,119 23	\$644,334 76	\$556,894 82

	Net amount.	Net duties.	Transit duties.	Harbor dues.	Net receipts.
1843	\$156,565 21	\$5,270 74	\$239 31	\$2,958 83	\$8,468 34
1844	289,969 77	8,970 13	411 60	4,881 33	14,263 58
1845	471,319 78	19,465 12	734 01	4,890 83	25,189 99
1846	536,056 50	31,780 76	220 56	4,705 32	36,506 66
1847	653,930 45	44,521 08	184 93	4,095 24	48,801 25
1848	572,067 18	52,209 46	264 52	3,094 06	55,568 94
1849	622,637 37	66,020 83	235 13	5,687 53	71,934 49
1850	989,628 98	91,916 49	443 42	12,644 54	116,190 68
1851	1,751,771 93	125,987 38	1,043 45	12,905 71	148,936 54
1852	651,634 09	135,428 77	991 56	7,711 90	144,127 23
Total....	\$6,695,381 26	\$581,565 76	\$4,768 49	\$68,576 19	\$669,987 57

LUMBER TRADE OF CHICAGO AND THE STATE OF MICHIGAN.

The annexed statement exhibits the receipts of lumber, shingles, and laths at Chicago for seven years :—

	Lumber.	Shingles.	Laths.
1847	32,118,225	12,148,500	5,655,600
1848	60,901,250	20,000,000	10,025,100
1849	73,259,553	39,057,750	19,281,733
1850	100,344,797	55,323,750	19,890,700
1851	125,056,437	60,388,250	27,583,475
1852	147,316,232	77,080,500	19,759,670
1853	193,271,247	125,628,500	38,721,373

The amount of capital engaged in the business cannot be less than \$3,500,000. It gives employment to a large number, which will be greatly increased this season, and, in fine, is one of the most important trades in some of our western cities.

To give some idea of the immense quantity of lumber manufactured in Michigan, we give the quantity of lumber estimated to be manufactured in St. Clair and Sanilac Counties, Michigan, during 1854 :—

Lumber	92,900,000
Logs furnished by these counties and sawed by mills on Detroit River.	33,000,000
New mills erected during the past winter equal to	6,000,000
Add ten per cent for increased machinery and improvements, and general advance in value.	13,190,000

Quantity of lumber and logs for 1854

Worth, at a low estimate of \$10 per thousand, \$1,450,900.

Add to this sum the value of laths, shingles, fish, staves, and spars, and the exports from the two counties above named will not fall below two millions of dollars for the present year.

IMPORTS FROM RUSSIA INTO THE UNITED KINGDOM IN 1852 AND 1853.

	Northern ports.		Ports within the Black Sea.		Aggregate imports from Russia.	
	1852.	1853.	1852.	1853.	1852.	1853.
Corn, wheat, & flour, qrs.	26,949	251,971	706,622	818,930	731,571	1,070,901
Corn, oats.....	304,448	370,059	1,290	305,738	379,059
Corn, other grain.....	12,385	12,100	249,963	251,553	262,348	263,655
Tallow.....cwt.	571,849	826,219	37,348	21,048	609,197	847,267
Linseed & Flaxseed, qrs.	215,064	378,316	303,603	386,699	518,667	765,015
Bristles.....lba.	1,459,303	2,477,789	1,459,303	2,477,789
Flax.....cwt.	918,523	1,287,978	10	918,523	1,287,988
Hemp.....	543,962	838,331	3	42	543,965	836,473
Wool, sheep's.....lba.	1,652,992	3,693,926	3,760,780	5,360,517	5,363,772	9,054,443
Iron, unwrought.....tons	1,792	5,079	1,792	5,079
Copper, unwrought.....	236	974	226	974
Copper, part wrought....	1,042	656	1,043	656
Timber, hewn.....loads	28,297	45,427	2	4	28,289	45,421
Timber, sawn.....	189,729	245,586	50	46	189,779	245,582

ACCOUNT SHOWING THE ENTIRE QUANTITIES OF THE SAME ARTICLES IMPORTED FROM ALL PLACES IN 1852 AND 1853.

	1852.	1853.
Corn, wheat, and flour.....qrs.	4,164,603	6,276,857
Corn, oats.....	989,287	1,035,072
Corn, other grain.....	2,592,181	2,918,545
Tallow.....cwt.	1,049,703	1,178,370
Seeds—Linseed and flaxseed.....qrs.	709,402	1,036,335
Bristles.....lba.	2,004,676
Flax.....cwt.	1,402,583	1,833,374
Hemp.....	1,081,287	1,262,813
Wool.....lba.	91,692,364	117,133,172
Iron.....tons	83,376	47,777
Copper.....	103,636	104,200
Timber, hewn and sawn.....loads	2,130,183	2,654,400

THE PROPORTION OF THE FOLLOWING ARTICLES DERIVED FROM RUSSIA, AS COMPARED WITH THE ENTIRE IMPORTS, IS AS FOLLOWS:—

PROPORTION OF THE ENTIRE FOREIGN SUPPLIES DERIVED FROM RUSSIA.

Wheat and flour.....	about 17 per cent	Bristles.....	about 75 per cent
Oats.....	" 32 "	Flax.....	" 68 "
Other grain.....	" 9 "	Hemp.....	" 66 "
Tallow.....	" 72 "	Wool.....	" 8 "
Seeds.....	" 75 "	Timber.....	" 11 "

The quantities of iron and copper are so small that they are not worth the computation.

It thus appears that for the supply of foreign tallow, linseed, flax, hemp, and Bristles, England is mainly indebted to Russia. Of grain, wool, and timber, the proportions are not so important.

GRAIN AND FLOUR TRADE OF THE UNITED KINGDOM.

A return has been issued showing the quantity of grain, flour, and live-stock, imported into the United Kingdom from each country and colony in 1849, 1850, 1851, and 1852, with the official value of these imports and of all the imports, and the declared value of the exports. Converting meal and flour into their equivalent in quarters of grain, the return shows that the chief sources from which was drawn the grain, meal, and flour consumed in the United Kingdom in 1852 were the United States, which sent 1,400,558 quarters; Egypt, 777,746; Wallachia and Moldavia, 713,877; France, 745,161; Denmark, 770,196; Prussia, 554,702; Russia sent 957,877 quarters from Black Sea ports, 343,948 from Northern ports; Wallachia and Moldavia sent only 325,128 quarters in 1849, and 217,505 in 1850; but those provinces have since risen into much more powerful competition with Russia in the corn trade.

FOREIGN TRADE OF OSWEGO.

The subjoined statements of the foreign trade of Oswego, (New York,) which we find in the journal published at that port, is furnished by Mr. Harmon, the deputy collector. It appears that—

There has been a handsome aggregate increase, although there has been a falling off in the importations of Canadian flour of near one-half as compared with last year. The cause of this we have before explained, the principal one being the reciprocal free trade adopted between the Provinces, which has tended to divert Canadian flour from our channels, down the St. Lawrence. The deficiency at this point this year, is made up by the increased receipts of Canadian wheat. The receipts of three articles of largest import, from Canada for two seasons, have been as follows:—

	1852.	1853.
Flour.....barrels	193,190	113,008
Wheat.....bushels	1,362,482	1,781,157
Lumber.....feet	75,500,000	121,288,329

Large amounts of the products of the forests, such as shingles, lath, railroad ties, oak and pine timber, &c., imported at this point, and not embraced in the above lumber figures.

We have not the figures showing the valuation of our foreign imports, or the means of comparing the amount of duties collected, with those of last year. The duties charged at the Oswego custom-house, for the season of 1853, were as follows:—

Duties paid	\$161,545 91
Duties bonded.....	539,816 83
Total duties.....	\$701,362 74

This amount is said to be near or quite double the amount of duties charged last year, owing in part, probably, to the higher rates at which our imports have been entered the past season. There has also been a considerable increase in the aggregate tonnage amount of our imports, especially of the products of the forest.

The value of our exports to Canada for 1853, estimated by a lower rule of valuation than ever before at our custom-house, was as follows:—

Export of domestic products	\$1,406,883
Export of foreign merchandise.....	587,720
Total valuation.....	\$1,944,103

The tonnage of our foreign commerce is stated as follows:—

Number of entries and departures.....	8,141
Total tonnage.....	1,141,883
Number of men employed	66,226

STATISTICS OF THE UNITED KINGDOM.

A parliamentary paper has just been printed for the first time, (to be hereafter continued annually,) which we hope some Member of Parliament or correspondent in London, will forward to the address of the Editor of the *Merchants' Magazine*. The statistics of the United Kingdom are for the years 1840 to 1853. They relate to the revenue and expenditure; imports, exports; transshipments; shipping, excise, prices and sales of corn, coinage, savings banks, Bank of England, and the population. The document extends to 27 folio pages, and contains a great mass of figures, having been prepared by the statistical department of the Board of Trade.

In the year 1853 the surplus of revenue was 3,254,505*l*, being the largest excess for ten years. The net amount of the several branches of the revenue of the United Kingdom paid into the exchequer was 54,430,344*l*. The expenditure out of the revenue paid in the same year was 51,174,839*l*. In 1853 the taxes repealed or reduced amounted to 3,247,474*l*, and the estimated amount imposed was 3,356,883*l*. At the end of last year the balances in the exchequer were 4,485,230*l*. The capital

of the national debt last year was 770,923,001*l*. The quantity of raw cotton imported last year was 895,266,780 lbs., and of wool, 111,394,445 lbs. The total declared value of British and Irish produce exported last year was 93,357,306*l*. Last year the number of vessels built and registered was 798, of 293,171 tons. The number of vessels belonging to the United Kingdom last year, exclusive of river steamers, was 18,206, of 3,730,087 tons, and the men employed, exclusive of masters, was 172,525. The coinage in the year was 12,664,125*l*. The births in the year were 612,341, the deaths 421,775, and the marriages 162,135. The total paupers relieved were 818,315.

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

COMMERCIAL TREATY BETWEEN FRANCE AND BELGIUM.

The *Moniteur* publishes the treaty of Commerce between France and Belgium. The text of the convention is of considerable length. It confirms, and in several respects extends the reciprocal concessions that regulated the treaty of 1845. To this treaty will shortly be added the literary convention, the clauses of which have been equally settled. The principal arrangements of the treaty may be thus stated:—

Among the stipulations assented to by France in favor of Belgium, are the complete remodeling of the tariff of linen yarns and cloths; the treaty is in many respects a return to the tariff that was in operation before the ordinance of June 26, 1842. There is consequently a reduction in the present import duties. New standards are also adopted for the varieties of unbleached linens, and will, in general, facilitate the importation of Belgian fabrics. The treaty grants to Belgium the privilege, hitherto denied her, of causing Belgian linens to pass in transit through France under the bonding system; that is to say, with English yarns upon condition of re-exportation. Guaranties have been granted against all advance upon French import duties on Belgian coals, cast iron, and forged iron; this is evidently the clause to which Belgium attached the greatest importance. Lime and Belgian building materials will henceforth be admitted free of duty; different reductions are consented to in favor of glass in sheets, of plaited straw and common straw hats; the abolition of surcharge in favor of Belgian machinery, which was regulated by the treaty of 1845, is confirmed; lastly, the prohibition upon the various kinds of pottery is set aside, and an *ad valorem* duty, ranging from 33 francs to 165 francs per cwt., is substituted. On the other hand, France obtains from Belgium in favor of her wines, silks, and salts, the guaranty of a treatment analogous to that which she grants to Belgian coals and irons. The taxes imposed in 1838 and 1843, by different royal decrees upon woolens, cashmeres, linen yarns, and ready-made articles, cease to affect products of French manufactures, and the suppression remains confirmed for French woven cottons; the most extensive facilities are accorded to French mercantile transit, in favor of which all customs dues are abolished; different reductions are made favorable to the entrance of French gypsum, &c., into Belgium, as well as to the importation into France of Belgian iron pyrites and charcoals; finally, French shipping admitted to the advantages conferred on English vessels by the treaty of December 27, 1851, now experiences the abolition of differential duties.

BRITISH COASTING TRADE FREE.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE, WASHINGTON, April 18, 1854.

Information has been received at this Department from Albert Davy, Esq., United States Consul at Leeds, of the passage of an act of Parliament by which the whole coasting trade of the United Kingdom is now thrown open to foreign ships, and they will be subject to the same regulations as British ships so employed, and will pay no higher rate of duties, dues, tolls, and charges. Passenger steamers, carrying passengers from one place to another, on the coast of the United Kingdom, will be subject to the provisions of the Steam Navigation Act of 1851.

THE MERCHANTS' FLOUR INSPECTORS IN NEW ORLEANS.

RULES AND REGULATIONS FOR THE GOVERNMENT OF THE BOARD OF MERCHANTS' FLOUR INSPECTORS, NEW ORLEANS, AS ADOPTED BY THE CHAMBER OF COMMERCE.

1. They shall select some suitable location for an office, to be known as the "Office of the Board of Merchants' Flour Inspectors."

2. Their first meeting for organization shall be held on the 27th of February, 1854, when they shall elect from their number a President and Secretary.

3. Said officers shall thereafter be elected annually on the first Monday of March in each year. A President and Secretary *pro tem.* may be elected at any time to act when the regularly elected officers shall be absent from sickness or otherwise.

4. It shall be the duty of the President to preside at all the meetings of the Board, and to act for and in the name of the Board in all matters of communication with the merchants or otherwise, and in the event of any complaint being made by either buyers or sellers, of the classification by any member of the Board, of any particular parcel of flour, it shall be the duty of the President to cause said parcels of flour to be examined and decided upon by all the members of the Board then on duty.

5. The Secretary of the Board shall keep a fair and correct record of all the proceedings of the Board, and also a faithful record of all the flour inspected by said Board, and he shall make semi annual reports to this Chamber on the 1st of January and 1st of July of the quantity of flour thus inspected, and also report any other information or facts connected with the flour trade of our city which the Board may deem of importance to this Chamber.

6. No member of the Board shall absent himself from active duty without the consent of a majority of said Board, unless in case of sickness.

7. In case any one of the members of said Board shall be unable to attend to his duties on account of sickness, or from leave of absence by the Board, he shall (provided the majority of said Board so desire) nominate a deputy to said Board, who, if accepted by said Board, shall do and perform, for a time not longer than sixty days, the duties of said principal inspector, he being responsible for the acts of said deputy as fully as if he had performed said duties himself.

8. No member of the Board shall purchase flour other than for his own use, nor shall he sell flour, under the penalty of five hundred dollars.

9. In case any brand of flour, upon inspection, shall be found not to contain the legal weight of 136 lbs. per barrel and 98 lbs. per half barrel, the owner or consignee shall cause the deficit to be put into each and every barrel so found before it shall be branded by the inspectors.

10. All flour shall be inspected or classified under the following qualities or grades:—

First quality.....	Extra Superfine.
Second quality.....	Fancy Superfine.
Third quality.....	Superfine.
Fourth quality.....	Fine.
Fifth quality.....	Common.
Sixth quality.....	Middling.

And the Board shall cause such brands or marks to be put upon the heads of the barrels containing such flour as they may deem most suitable, provided that all brands thus used shall have the words "Merchants' Board"

11. If any person or persons shall alter, erase, or cause to be erased, any brand or mark of said Board of Inspectors, any person so offending shall forfeit the sum of fifty dollars for each and every such offence, for the benefit of the Charity Hospital.

12. It shall be the duty of said Board to appoint from their members a committee of not more than two to visit, at some period during the present year, all the important flour markets of our seaboard, and procure, from the most reliable sources, and from their own personal inspection and examination, the standard classification of the various grades of flour in those markets. Also to procure correct samples of those standard grades, and retain them in the office of said Board for examination and reference by merchants of our city or others. It shall also be the duty of said committee to procure every possible information in their power, which may be of value in connection with the article of flour to the trade of our city; and upon the report of said committee to the Board, they shall establish the grades of flour inspected in our city upon such a standard as shall place the flour trade of our city upon an equal footing with that of the other great commercial marts of our country.

Resolved, That the Merchants' Board of Flour Inspectors shall be elected by this Chamber annually, at the monthly meeting in February of each year.

BUENOS AYREAN COMMERCIAL DECREES.

DEPARTMENT OF GOVERNMENT AND FOREIGN
RELATIONS, BUENOS AYRES, Sept. 29, 1853. }

Whereas, the position of relations existing between this province and the Provisional Director of the thirteen Provinces assembled in Congress at Santa Fe, is such as to make it absolutely incompatible that the consulate in foreign countries of this province and that of the said thirteen provinces, should be at the same time filled by the same individual; and desiring not only to obviate the embarrassments in which said individuals may be placed by receiving contradictory orders from the governments conferring the said offices on them, but also to remove the prejudice that may result to the interests of this province under such an arrangement, the government has resolved and decrees—

ARTICLE 1. The consulate of the province of Buenos Ayres cannot be filled by any person having the commission of consul granted by General Dr. Justo Jose de Urquiza.

ART. 2. In conformity with the provisions of the preceding article, let the requisite commissions appointing consuls of the province of Buenos Ayres for the various localities in America and Europe, where it is deemed necessary to have such, be issued.

ART. 3. Let this be communicated, published, and registered.

LORENZO TORRES.

DEPARTMENT OF GOVERNMENT AND FOREIGN
RELATIONS, BUENOS AYRES, Sept. 27, 1853. }

Consignees, captains of vessels, and whomsoever it may concern, are hereby warned that, whereas the government has noticed the infringements made on the existing laws of this country, which require vessels to bring their papers certified by the consular agents of this province at the foot of their clearance, and passengers their passports with the *visa* of said functionary, it has adopted the necessary measures to check said abuses which are so constantly practiced; and consequently orders that, on the expiration of six months from date for vessels from sea, and two for the rest, no vessel will be admitted to entry at the ports of this province that does not present its papers with the above legal formality; and that passengers contravening this requisition will be liable to the established penalties, which will be enforced with all their vigor.

JOSE M. LA FUENTE, Chief Clerk.

NEW TARIFF AT BALIZE, HONDURAS.

The legislative assembly, elected under the new constitution, was called together by the acting superintendent in January, and has closed its first session, having enacted various laws and ordinances, mostly of a local nature for the government of the place. Among the most important is the adoption of a new tariff of duties for the current year, say from March 1st, 1854, to March 1st, 1855. By this act all unrated articles are to pay a duty of 3 per cent on their actual cost, and all charges including freight; sugar, coffee, and tobacco, are to pay \$3 per 100 pounds; tea 25 cents per pound; honey, molasses, spirits, and wines of all kinds, are to pay 50 cents per imperial gallon; hay, lumber, shingles, cattle, and a few other articles, pay a specific duty, which on an average will amount to 10 per cent *ad valorem*.

CHEAP POSTAGE BETWEEN NEW YORK AND AUSTRALIA.

The Postmaster-general has made an arrangement with the proprietors of the Australia pioneer line of monthly packets, to convey the mail regularly between New York and Australia, by sailing-ships, monthly in each direction. It is expected that the first mail under this arrangement will be dispatched from New York on the 25th of April. The single rate of postage for letters is five cents; for pamphlets and magazines, one cent an ounce or fraction of an ounce; and for newspapers, two cents each; prepayment required. The incoming mails, as the United States postage thereon cannot be prepaid, will be treated as ordinary private ship mails.

CLASSIFICATION OF MANUFACTURES IN GREAT BRITAIN.

The Board of Trade lately communicated to the Leeds Chamber of Commerce its willingness to adopt in its printed returns a more complete classification of manufactures, and such as would show the extent and progress or decline of the British export trade. The Chamber has decided to recommend that the following classification shall be adopted:—

1. Broad woollen cloths, all wool, or mixed with other material. Yards and value.
2. Woollen cloths, heavy, viz., flushings, pilots, beavers, Petershams, Whitneys, and Devons, whether all wool or mixed. Yards and value.
8. Woollen cloths, cloaking, coatings, &c. Yards and value.
4. Narrow woollens, viz., trowsersings of all descriptions, whether all wool or mixed. Yards and value.
5. Woollens, waistcoatings, made of wool mixed. Yards and value.
6. Flannels and baizes. Yards and value.
7. Carpets, all wool or mixed. Yards and value.
8. Druggets, all wool or mixed. Yards and value.
9. Blankets. Pairs and value.
10. Blanketing. Yards and value.
11. Shawls, woollen or mixed. Number and value.
12. Woollens not enumerated, including ready-made clothes. Dozens and value.
13. Woollen yarn. Pounds and value.

If the above specifications are adopted, the returns of the Board of Trade will be of great value to the manufacturers of woollen fabrics.

NAVIGATION OF THE LA PLATA.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE, WASHINGTON, March 23, 1854.

The following translation of a decree, issued by the government of Montevideo, is published for the information of those whom it may concern:—

DEPARTMENT OF THE GOVERNMENT, MONTEVIDEO, {
October 10, 1853. }

The Provisional Government of the Republic, considering that the most effective means to secure the public peace, and the development of the national resources; considering that the foundation of the prosperity of a country is amplest liberty to trade, has resolved, and decreed:—

ART. 1. The navigable rivers of the republic are opened to the vessels and to the Commerce of all nations.

ART. 2. Foreign vessels are subject, in regard to the navigation of the rivers, to the same policy and custom-house regulations as national vessels.

ART. 3. Let this be promulgated, published, and properly registered.

LAVALLEJA,
TUVILLAGA,

JUAN C. GOMEZ,
SANTIAGO SAYAGO.

THE NEW AUSTRALIAN TARIFF.

A new customs act was passed on the 19th instant, which makes the following additions to the duties previously levied:—Wine, 2s., being an additional 1s. per gallon; beer and cider, 6d. per gallon. The following is the tariff of customs now established in Victoria:—Ale, porter, spruce, and other beer, cider and perry, per gallon, 6d.; tobacco, cigars, and snuff, 2s. per lb.; coffee, 10s. per cwt.; spirits, (all kinds,) 7s. per gallon; tea, 3d. per lb.; wine, 2s. per gallon; all other goods free.

AN IMPORTANT TREASURY DEPARTMENT RULING.

In answer to a recent inquiry, the proper accounting officer of the Treasury rules that where an appropriation has, by accident or mistake, been paid over to a party not legally entitled to the money, the party who may be so legally entitled cannot be paid by the Treasury Department, the appropriation being exhausted; and that his

only remedy is in asking Congress to make a second appropriation to the same end. Such an occurrence, however, is known to have taken place but in two cases since the organization of the Treasury Department.

STATISTICS OF AGRICULTURE, &c.

NEW YORK CATTLE TRADE FOR 1853.

We give below our annual statistics of the New York cattle trade for the year just closing—a trade which seems to more than keep pace with the internal Commerce of our country in other respects. New York is, beyond comparison, the most extensive cattle mart in America; and whether regard be had to its intimate connection with the great agricultural interests of the interior, or to its magnitude, as a source whence so large a proportion of the daily food of our population is drawn, it becomes a matter of some importance to keep a record of its details, upon such reliable data as can be obtained.

The cattle brought to this market come to us from nearly all sections of the Union east of the Mississippi—indeed from all sections, save those of the Southern States bordering on the Gulf of Mexico. Kentucky, Tennessee, Indiana, Ohio, Illinois, Virginia, and Pennsylvania are our most liberal contributors; but Western and Northern New York, with Connecticut, Massachusetts, and other of the New England States, likewise send us large supplies. The extension of railroad communication of late years has brought comparatively near to us the grazing and agricultural products of the interior, so that the drover is now enabled to bring his stock to market without encountering the necessity of long and tedious journeys on foot from the country to the seaboard. It is true, some of the very best cattle that are sold here still reach us in the old-fashioned way; but these are the exceptions, not the rule. For every hundred that come to us on foot, a thousand reach us by the speedier transit afforded by railroad, and whatever may be the immediate excess of expense which the latter may involve, we think it is more than made up by a saving of time, and the fresher, and therefore the more marketable condition of the cattle when they are brought to the city. Thus all the lines of travel radiating from this city to the interior—the Harlem and Hudson railroads, the New York Central, the Lake Shore, the great Michigan Central, and the Baltimore and Ohio, and some of the Eastern railroads, find in the carriage of the live stock consumed in the city of New York one of their most profitable items of freight from Ohio, Kentucky, Illinois, Indiana, Maryland, Virginia, Pennsylvania, New England, and Northern and Western New York. A large proportion of the cattle driven to this market, however, come from districts nearer home. The counties bordering on the North River raise some of the finest, while Long Island and New Jersey occasionally are large contributors.

In this city there are principally four places for the sale of beef cattle—namely, the well known Washington Drove Yard, in 44th street, between the Fourth and Fifth avenues, of which A. M. Allerton, Esq., is the proprietor; 2d, the lower or Hudson River Bull's Head, kept by Messrs. Chamberlain; 3d, Geo. Browning's Central Bull's Head, in Sixth-street; and 4th, the market kept by Mr. Morgan O'Brien, also in Sixth-street, near the Third avenue. Sheep and lambs are sold at all these places, except the last mentioned; the largest number at Browning's, and the next at Chamberlain's. At Allerton's, there were formerly but few sold, but the rapid extension of the city in that quarter has created a necessity for the sale of sheep, and lambs there, just as a necessity has been created for the sale of heaves at Browning's, in Sixth-street, where formerly only sheep and lambs were sold. Cows and calves are sold at all these establishments; but the largest business in this respect is done at Browning's and Chamberlain's. The market days are Monday and Thursday, but sales to a greater or less extent are made every day. Independently of the regular transactions at these several city markets, there are many cattle bought and sold on board the boats at the wharves, on the north side of the city. Many cattle slaughtered in the country are also brought to market here, ready dressed; but these do not enter into the statistics below:—

TABLE SHOWING THE NUMBER OF CATTLE SOLD IN THE NEW YORK MARKET, WITH THE PRICES OF THE SEVERAL KINDS FOR EACH WEEK DURING THE YEAR 1853—AS COMPILED FROM THE WEEKLY REPORTS IN THE NEW YORK "COURIER AND ENQUIRER."

CATTLE ON SALE WEEKLY.				WEEKLY AVERAGE PRICES.		
	Beeves.	Cows & calves.	Sheep & lambs.	Beeves.	Cows & calves.	Sheep & lambs.
January 8.....	2,400	60	8,000	\$7 62	\$33 75	\$3 80
10.....	2,700	85	9,000	7 20	34 36	3 89
17.....	2,700	65	8,100	7 89	39 50	3 82
24.....	3,550	75	9,500	7 50	37 50	3 63
31.....	2,200	70	10,000	7 88	34 38	4 81
February 7.....	2,600	85	6,500	7 50	34 50	4 57
14.....	2,100	85	5,500	8 00	33 89	4 50
21.....	1,900	85	5,500	8 38	34 75	4 59
28.....	2,350	60	4,500	8 38	33 75	4 57
March 7.....	2,450	95	3,600	8 35	35 88	5 57
14.....	2,900	80	4,700	8 80	34 00	5 10
21.....	2,500	127	4,600	8 50	33 75	5 25
28.....	1,750	175	3,450	8 38	37 25	5 44
April 5.....	2,050	175	4,000	9 00	35 63	6 56
12.....	2,150	125	2,050	9 00	37 00	6 63
19.....	2,800	150	2,100	9 50	37 50	5 50
26.....	3,200	170	2,900	8 89	37 00	6 38
May 3.....	2,350	135	3,000	8 75	36 00	4 75
10.....	2,450	95	1,800	9 25	35 55	4 85
17.....	2,228	145	2,500	9 13	35 63	6 50
24.....	2,320	155	2,600	9 38	36 25	8 89
31.....	2,755	175	3,000	9 25	26 00	5 30
June 6.....	3,200	215	5,400	9 68	36 25	5 25
13.....	2,350	300	7,000	9 63	37 50	4 25
20.....	2,350	215	7,200	9 32	35 00	4 13
27.....	2,850	170	7,150	8 88	36 24	4 19
July 5.....	2,450	105	7,000	8 87	35 50	3 94
11.....	2,450	115	7,000	8 00	38 13	3 75
18.....	2,950	140	12,000	8 60	38 12	3 80
25.....	2,750	190	8,220	8 50	38 12	4 13
August 1.....	2,650	185	10,449	8 50	35 13	4 67
7.....	2,750	135	10,344	8 37	38 75	3 63
15.....	2,350	120	8,042	8 25	36 75	4 14
22.....	2,750	135	10,700	8 38	37 25	4 19
29.....	2,750	135	9,300	8 50	37 00	4 25
Sept. 5.....	4,100	238	8,000	8 13	26 25	4 13
12.....	3,005	149	11,228	8 50	38 34	4 35
19.....	4,747	539	16,460	7 37	38 75	4 19
26.....	3,170	321	9,844	8 10	43 75	4 75
Oct. 3.....	3,532	175	7,980	8 25	40 05	4 81
10.....	3,251	822	13,562	8 09	45 00	4 93
17.....	3,325	222	12,594	7 84	42 00	4 87
24.....	3,602	342	13,434	8 25	38 75	5 13
31.....	3,102	356	12,439	7 82	36 84	4 75
Nov. 7.....	4,250	411	13,665	7 50	40 00	4 50
14.....	2,954	343	8,944	7 75	35 84	5 05
21.....	4,181	370	13,200	8 25	36 00	4 87
29.....	4,076	445	10,458	8 37	36 00	4 80
Dec. 5.....	5,882	320	12,812	8 45	44 12	4 63
12.....	3,140	325	11,964	9 00	44 56	4 75
19.....	3,300	330	11,000	8 87	44 25	4 80
26.....	*3,800	330	11,000	8 98	44 25	4 80
0	157,420	10,720	412,989	\$8 39	\$36 90	\$5 20

* Estimated.

According to this showing, the largest number of beeves on sale, for any single week, was on the 3d of October; cows and calves, and sheep and lambs, on the 19th of September. Beeves were dearer (\$9 68) on the 6th of June than at any other period of the year; cows and calves do. (\$44 00) on the 10th of October; sheep and lambs do. (\$6 56) on the 5th of April.

COMPARATIVE MONTHLY STATEMENT OF CATTLE ON SALE IN THE NEW YORK MARKET DURING THE YEARS 1852 AND 1853:—

	1852.			1853.		
	Beeves.	Cows & calves.	Sheep & lambs.	Beeves.	Cows & calves.	Sheep & lambs.
January	13,550	355	44,600	5,500	420	18,000
February	8,950	315	22,000	6,200	495	24,800
March	9,600	477	16,350	9,125	643	23,500
April	10,200	620	11,050	4,800	750	11,700
May	12,103	705	12,900	10,200	505	16,500
June	11,250	900	26,750	9,250	350	21,400
July	10,600	550	34,220	9,950	520	34,200
August	13,250	710	43,835	9,500	525	55,000
September	15,022	1,247	45,532	8,100	320	24,200
October	21,812	1,917	60,209	12,400	430	40,500
November	15,461	1,569	45,267	11,300	295	39,500
December	15,622	1,305	46,776	9,000	435	27,000
	157,420	10,720	412,989	105,225	5,688	336,100

These figures show at a glance the immense increase in the consumption of cattle in this city. The difference in favor of 1853 is as follows:—

INCREASE IN 1853.

Beeves.	Cows & calves.	Sheep & lambs.
52,195	5,032	76,839

TABLE SHOWING THE AVERAGE OF PRICES FOR EACH MONTH DURING THE YEAR 1853, COMPARED WITH THE CORRESPONDING QUOTATIONS OF 1852:—

	1852.			1853.		
	Beeves.	Cows & calves.	Sheep & lambs.	Beeves.	Cows & calves.	Sheep & lambs.
January	\$7 63	\$35 89	\$3 90	\$7 37	\$34 50	\$4 50
February	8 07	34 24	4 60	7 50	35 00	4 00
March	8 36	35 11	5 86	8 37	32 50	4 60
April	9 10	31 80	6 03	8 12	32 50	4 75
May	9 19	35 93	6 07	8 25	37 50	7 72
June	9 38	36 24	4 46	8 75	37 60	4 50
July	9 50	37 48	3 92	7 75	34 75	4 50
August	8 40	36 98	4 19	7 12	35 00	4 00
September	8 00	39 32	4 37	7 75	34 00	4 00
October	8 12	38 58	4 90	7 12	33 75	4 25
November	7 97	36 98	4 82	7 50	34 50	3 60
December	8 80	44 30	4 78	7 50	34 25	3 50
Average	\$8 30	\$36 31	\$5 20	\$7 76	\$34 70	\$4 50

These results and comparisons enable us to see the general advance there has been in the prices of all kinds of cattle during the year. Comparing the monthly average of 1853 with that of the previous year, the differences are as follows:—

	Beeves.	Cows & calves.	Sheep & lambs.
1853	\$8 39	\$36 90	\$5 20
1852	7 87½	34 87½	4 50
	52½	\$2 03½	70

We see here a very material improvement upon prices, notwithstanding the fact that the supplies, in every case, are largely increased, as compared with those of 1852. Such, however, is the rapid growth of our population, that the demand for consumption seems to keep steady pace with, if not actually ahead of, the ability of the country to supply.

The total value of cattle sold at the several city markets above mentioned (excepting the average prices as given above) during the year, is as follows. (We have put down \$43 as the average of each head of beef cattle.) Some dealers consider this a low figure, but as the more general opinion seems to be that it is about right, we have concluded to adopt it:—

	1853.	1852.
Beeves.....	\$6,769,080 00	\$4,103,975
Cows and calves.....	335,248 20	198,080
Sheep and lambs.....	2,151,662 69	1,547,780
	<hr/>	<hr/>
	\$9,255,965 89	\$5,847,785
	5,847,785 00
	<hr/>	<hr/>
Increase.....	\$3,408,180 89

These figures show at a glance the magnitude of the cattle trade of this city. If we include the sales at the docks, (referred to in our preliminary remarks,) of which no authentic record is kept, it is probable that the aggregate value of cattle sold for the year does not fall far short of nine and a half millions of dollars.

The bulk of the cattle brought here for sale are consumed here; but a large and lucrative business is done by the packers, for shipment to California, Australia, and other foreign countries. Occasional shipments of live cattle are made to Bermuda, to supply the naval contract with the government there.

We have not included hogs in our tables, for the reason that we are not able to procure any record of the number coming to market reliable enough to enter into the general account. The trade in that respect, however, is a very large one, as we shall be able to show when as accurate a record is kept of the transactions as we are enabled to avail ourselves of in respect to cattle of other descriptions. At present the weekly consumption is from five to six thousand.

PRODUCTION OF COTTON IN INDIA.

A small volume of Indian statistics has been recently printed by order of the House of Commons. It contains short summaries of the most important information which could be collected in the statistical office of the East India House on the principal heads of Indian affairs, and was originally prepared by order of the Court of Directors. There are two principal descriptions of cotton plants now cultivated in India—the indigenous plant which is an annual, and succeeds best in the rich black soil found in various parts of the country and the American plant, which though a perennial, is practically an annual in India, and though grown successfully in some parts on the black soil, yet thrives better on the light red lands. Each kind is recommended by peculiar advantages; the Indian is superior in durability and fineness, the American in productiveness and length of staple. Both kinds are cultivated to a considerable extent, but the indigenous plant will probably always continue to be the favorite with native cultivators. It may now be considered as demonstrated beyond all question, that India can furnish cotton for the British market, and that the natives cultivate the cotton plant in a manner which, if it admits of improvement, is highly efficient. In 1846, the Court of Directors directed consignments of six thousand bales to be made annually for three years—half to be of New Orleans, and half of indigenous cotton. Very favorable opinions were pronounced on what was sent, by spinners and other competent judges, and all doubt as to the capability of India to produce cotton suitable for the purposes of our manufactures may be said to have been thenceforth set at rest. The great inferiority of the Indian cotton as compared with the American, is the result of what befalls it subsequent to its production in the fields, that is, in the way it is gathered and stored, in the mode by which it is separated from the seed, and in its transmission to market. The cleansing and packing of cotton, in spite of the continued attempts of the government to introduce improved saw-gins, is still very far from perfect. But the impossibility of getting cotton to the coast from the

inland districts forms the real reason why so scanty a proportion of the cotton we consume in our manufactures is derived from India. The amount which the maritime districts produce could not, probably, be very materially increased. About eight thousand square miles are already, it is calculated, devoted to the cultivation of exported cotton, and only a small portion of the parts of India adjacent to the sea will grow cotton at all. If by means of railroads the great cotton fields of Hyderabad, in the center of southern India, were placed nearly on an equality, in point of facility of transport, with the maritime cotton districts, then, as the writer of this portion of the volume calculates, a breadth of land sufficient for the growth of a quantity equal to the full demand of Great Britain, might be at once available. That cotton cannot be conveyed to a profit from the center of India, except by railway, may be proved by the analogous case of salt, which costs at Benares double what it does at Calcutta, the distance between the two places being four hundred miles—about the same distance as from some of the cotton marts at Hyderabad to Bombay.—*London Morning Chronicle, October 4th, 1853.*

STATISTICS OF POPULATION, &c.

BIRTHS, DEATHS, AND MARRIAGES IN MASSACHUSETTS.

From the eleventh report to the Legislature, relating to the registry and returns of births, marriages, and deaths in Massachusetts, for the year ending December 31, 1852, prepared by the Secretary of State, it appears that the whole number of births in the State during the year was 29,702—an increase of 1,121 over the previous year; of which 15,246 were males, 14,482 females, and the sex of 124 is unknown; 17,255 were of American parentage, 10,991 of foreign, and 1,556 the parentage is unknown.

The whole number of marriages was 11,578; of which 7,702 were Americans, 3,767 foreigners, and 100 unknown.

The whole number of deaths, 18,582—males, 8,978; females, 9,395; unknown, 108. The average of age throughout the State is 27 78-100.

During the three years preceding 1852, the number of births of children of foreign parents amounted to 24,528, or 29.87 per cent of all the births in the Commonwealth. The year 1852 shows an increase in the births of this description, and also an increase in the per cental. There were four cases of triplets during the year 1852, and 590 "plurality cases."

During the four years ending 1852, there were born in Massachusetts 3,961 more males than females, the totals being 57,661 males, 53,700 females.

THE FOLLOWING ARE THE DEATHS IN MASSACHUSETTS FOR THE YEAR 1852.—

Consumption.....	4,155	Infantile diseases.....	1,160
Dysentery.....	1,018	Intemperance.....	45
Apoplexy.....	126	Insanity.....	37
Inflammation of bowels.....	293	Disease of liver.....	124
Disease of bowels.....	249	Disease of lungs.....	80
Inflammation of brain.....	327	Marasmus.....	157
Disease of brain.....	193	Measles.....	141
Cancer.....	180	Old age.....	960
Childbirth.....	160	Paralysis.....	283
Cholera infantum.....	377	Pleurisy.....	64
Croup.....	429	Pneumonia.....	821
Delirium tremens.....	31	Poisoned.....	13
Erysipelas.....	163	Rheumatism.....	69
Drowned.....	191	Scarlatina.....	843
Typhus fever.....	617	Scrofula.....	90
Fits.....	120	Disease of spine.....	46
Gout.....	2	Suicide.....	76
Disease of heart.....	435	Teething.....	309
Whooping cough.....	166	Unknown.....	420
Heat.....	19		
Hydrocephalus.....	440	Total.....	18,483

RESULTS OF THE CENSUS OF GREAT BRITAIN.*

NUMBER 1.

POPULATION.

The number of people in Great Britain and the small adjacent islands in 1851 was 20,959,477; and the men in the army, navy, and merchant service, and East India Company's service, abroad, on the passage out, or round the coasts, belonging to Great Britain, amounted, on the same day, to 162,490. The population of Great Britain may, therefore, be set down at 21,121,967.

The annexed table exhibits the distribution of the people:—

POPULATION OF GREAT BRITAIN IN 1851.

	Males.	Females.	Total.
England	8,281,734	8,640,154	16,921,888
Scotland	1,375,479	1,513,268	2,888,742
Wales	499,491	506,230	1,005,721
Islands in the British Seas	66,854	76,272	143,126
Army, navy, and merchant seamen ...	162,490	162,490
Total	10,386,048	10,735,919	21,121,967

British subjects in foreign states are not included in the general population as given in the preceding table, the exiles and foreign subjects in Great Britain being considered a set-off against them.

The following illustration will assist the popular mind adequately to appreciate *twenty-one millions* of people:—

It is well known that to *mass* quantity is to conceal bulk; thus it was stated the other day that the whole of the vast yields of California and Australia, melted down into a solid mass of gold, would only fill a tolerable-sized room; and so it is with numbers. A general, wishing to conceal the strength of his army, forms it into *masses*.

Now, if all the people of Great Britain had to pass through London in procession, four abreast, and every facility was afforded for their free and uninterrupted passage during 12 hours daily, Sundays excepted, it would take nearly three months for the whole population of Great Britain to file through, at quick march, four deep. To count them singly, at the rate of one a second, would take a year and a half, assuming that the same number of hours daily were occupied, and that Sundays also were excepted.

It has been stated that, in a future publication, the ages of the population will be given, their condition, and occupations. As regards age, they will be arranged in quinquennial sections—that is, in sections advancing by periods of five years each, from children in arms to the age of ninety and upwards. The people will then be classed in sections, as husbands, wives, widowers, widows, bachelors, and spinsters; again, they will be grouped, first, according to place of residence, and subsequently under the countries and counties in which they were born; and finally, they will be arranged in professions or occupations, from the prince to the peasant—paupers, prisoners, lunatics, and vagrants being severally grouped; and as the survey will extend over thousands in more than a thousand different callings, it is evident that, as the greatest exhibition of modern times only displayed a small part of the produce of the labors of the people, so the visitors to it only represented a fraction of the multitudinous population of these islands, which the enumerators found so variously occupied on the sea, on rivers, and on the coasts, in the valleys and on the hills, in cities, towns, villages, and solitary habitations over the face of the country.

The number of the male population of Great Britain, excluding those absent in foreign countries, was 10,223,558, and the female population 10,735,919; consequently the females were in excess of the males by 512,861, or as many as would have filled the Crystal Palace five times over. How many of these were spinsters cannot be

* "The Results of the Census of Great Britain in 1851. With a Description of the Machinery and Processes employed to obtain the Returns. Also an Appendix of Tables of Reference. By Edward Cheshire, Fellow of the Statistical Society, and one of the Secretaries to the Statistical Section of the British Association for the Advancement of Science. 8vo., pp. 56. London: John W. Parker and Son. New York: J. Wiley."

known until the second portion of the census is published. The proportion between the sexes in 1851 was 100 males to 105 females, or about the same as in 1801.

The births during the last thirteen years give a reversed proportion, viz. 105 boys to 100 girls. How much the change in the proportions, and the subsequent disparity of the numbers in the two sexes is due to emigration, or to a difference in the degree of the dangers and diseases to which they are respectively exposed, will be discussed when the numbers of males and females living at different periods of life are compared. The disparity in the proportions of the sexes is greatest in Scotland, there being no less than 110 females to 100 males in that country.

The following table gives the population of Great Britain and the Islands of the British Seas, including the army, navy, and merchant seamen abroad, as enumerated at each census from 1801 to 1851 inclusive:—

POPULATION OF GREAT BRITAIN FROM 1801 TO 1851, INCLUSIVE.

	Males.	Females.	Total.
1801.....	5,368,703	5,548,780	10,917,483
1811.....	6,111,261	6,312,859	12,424,120
1821.....	7,096,053	7,306,590	14,402,643
1831.....	8,133,446	8,430,692	16,564,138
1841.....	9,232,418	9,581,368	18,813,786
1851.....	10,386,048	10,735,919	21,121,967

It will be seen by the foregoing table that the population of Great Britain has nearly doubled since the commencement of the present century, notwithstanding the great number that have annually left the country and settled and multiplied into millions in the United States, in the colonies of North America, Australia, and South Africa. The increase in the last fifty years has been 93.47 per cent, or at the rate of 1.329 per cent annually, the increase of each sex being about equal.

The annual rate of increase has varied in each decennial period; thus, in 1841-51 the population has increased, but the rate of increase has declined, chiefly from accelerated emigration.

The emigration from Great Britain and Ireland in the ten years 1821-31 was 274,317; in the ten years 1831-41 it amounted to 717,913; and in the ten years 1841-51 it had increased to 1,693,516.

It has been shown by Dr. Farr, in his English Life table, that the half of a generation of men of all ages passes away in thirty years, and that three in every four of their number die in half a century. Taking emigration and other movements of the population into account, it is probable that of the 21,121,967 persons in Great Britain in 1851, 2,542,289 were born prior to the census of 1801, and were enumerated on that occasion. At the present rate of mortality, a few of the present generation will be alive a century hence.

If the population of Great Britain continues to increase uniformly at the same rate that it has done from 1801 to 1851, it will double itself every 52½ years.

STATISTICS OF POPULATION IN CALIFORNIA.

The Rev. Mr. PHILLIPS, in a sermon delivered lately in Stockton, gives the following interesting statistics in relation to the population, &c., of California. They are copied from the *Journal*:—

The population of California four years ago was 35,000; of which number 17,000, or one-half, were females. At the present time there are 300,000, making an annual increase of 75,000. The sexes, which were about equally divided four years ago, now stand in great disproportion, as out of a population of 300,000, there are only 40,000 females—an increase of 23,000, averaging 5,750 every year, or 479 per month. Of this whole population, 26,000 are children under fourteen years of age. Deduct from the number of females one-half the number of children, and we have 27,500 white females in the State. The figures sum up as follows:—Females, 27,500; children, 25,000; males, 247,500—making a total of 300,000. Of this number, it is estimated that 100,000 reside on the coast, and 200,000 in the valleys and in the mountains. These estimates are reliable, and are only selected from among the mass of statistics presented on the occasion, as the most worthy of publication.

RAILROAD, CANAL, AND STEAMBOAT STATISTICS.

THE STEAMBOAT.

See how yon flaming herald treads
The high and rolling waves;
As crashing o'er their crested heads
She bows her surly slaves!
With foam before and fire behind,
She rings the clinging sea,
That flies before the roaring wind,
Beneath her hissing lee.

The morning spray, like sea-born flowers,
With heaped and glistening bells,
Falls round her fast, in ringing showers,
With every wave that swells;
And flaming, o'er the midnight deep,
In lurid fringes thrown,
The living gems of ocean sweep
Along her flashing zone.

With clashing wheel and lifting keel,
And smoking torch on high,
When winds are loud and billows reel,
She thunders foaming by!
When seas are silent and serene,
With even beams she glides,
The sunshine glimmering through the green
That skirts her gleaming sides.

To-night yon pilot shall not sleep,
Who trims his narrowed sail,
To-night yon frigate scarce can keep
Her broad breast to the gale;
And many a foresail, scooped and strained,
Shall break from yard to stay,
Before this smoky wreath has stained
The rising mist of day.

Hark, hark! I hear yon whistling shroud,
I see yon quivering mast;
The black throat of the hunted cloud
Is panting forth the blast!
An hour, and whirled like winnowing chaff,
The giant surge shall fling
His treasures o'er yon pennant staff,
White as the sea bird's wing!

Yet rest, ye wanderers of the deep,
Nor wind nor wave shall tire
Those fleshless arms, whose pulses leap
With floods of living fire.
Sleep on—and when the morning light
Streams o'er the shining bay,
O think of those for whom the night
Shall never wake in day!

MASSACHUSETTS RAILROADS IN 1851-52-53.

In the last number of the *Merchants' Magazine* we published elaborate tables of the operations of the Massachusetts railroads for 1853, compiled by our attentive correspondent, DAVID M. BALFOUR, Esq., of Boston. We now give, from the *American Railway Times*, a few of the leading items of operations for 1853, of forty roads, so that a comparison may be made with the operations of the two previous years, 1851 and '52. It will be remembered that these figures embrace only the roads that were in operation during the past year. The following is the comparative statement:—

	1851.	1852.	1853.
Number of railways.....	36	36	40
Miles of road and branches.....	1,150	1,150	1,192
Miles of double track and sidings.....	384	407	528
Gross cost	\$52,595,288	53,076,013	55,248,652
Average cost per mile.....	\$45,556	46,153	46,488
Gross receipts.....	\$6,590,570	6,885,517	7,994,033
Gross expenses.....	\$3,838,905	3,073,410	4,332,766
Net income	\$3,860,671	3,212,107	3,661,277
Average net income per cent on cost...	\$6 20	6 05	6 61
Gross number of miles run.....	4,398,370	4,785,783	5,250,392
Average receipts per mile run	\$1 50	1 44	1 52
Average expenses per mile run	\$0 76	0 77	0 82
Average net income per mile run.....	\$0 74	0 67	0 70
Gross receipts per mile of railway	\$5,730 07	5,987 32	6,706 40
Number of passengers carried	9,510,858	9,810,056	11,568,992
Passengers carried one mile	152,916,183	161,694,555	186,215,713
Tons of merchandise carried.....	2,260,346	2,563,277	3,041,782
Tons carried one mile	70,205,310	77,638,247	95,985,832
Total weight of passenger trains in tons hauled 1 mile, not includ'g passengers	98,766,749	101,746,153	106,208,467
Total weight of freight trains in tons hauled 1 mile, not including freight..	118,695,509	131,077,550	148,804,441
Total number of tons, not including pas- sengers, hauled 1 mile.....	287,667,568	310,461,850	350,998,740

RATES OF TOLLS ON THE CANALS OF NEW YORK IN 1854.

Resolved, That the following rates of tolls be established by the Canal Board on persons and property transported on the New York State Canals, to take effect on the opening of navigation in 1854 :—

PROVISIONS, ETC.—PER 1,000 POUNDS PER MILE.

	Cts. m. fr.		
On salted beef, butter, tallow, beer, cider and vinegar.	0	3	0
On salted pork, bacon, lard, lard oil, grease, and cheese.	0	1	5
On salted fish and fish in brine.	0	4	0
On bran and ship-stuffs, and oil-cake or oil-meal, in bulk.	0	2	0

IRON, MINERALS, ORES, ETC.—PER 1,000 POUNDS PER MILE.

On salt manufactured in this State.	0	1	0
On foreign salt and barytes.	0	5	0
On gypsum, the product of this State.	0	1	0
On foreign gypsum.	0	3	0
On bloom, scrap, and pig iron, broken castings, gas pipes, and water pipes.	0	2	0
On sand, lime, clay, earth, manure, pig and smelted copper.	0	1	0
On leached ashes, brick stone for the manufacture of lime, and bones for manure.	0	0	5
On pot and pearl ashes, window glass, barilla and bleaching powders, kelp, soda ash, and copperas, and manganese.	0	4	0
On mineral coal, charcoal, and iron ore.	0	0	5
On stoves, iron car wheels and car axles, bed-plates for steam-engines, plow castings, and all other iron castings, except machines and the parts thereof.	0	3	0
On bar and pig lead, going towards tide-water, and copper ore.	0	0	5
On stove pipe and furniture for stoves, not cast-iron.	0	6	0

FURS, PELTRY, SKINS, ETC.—PER 1,000 POUNDS PER MILE.

On furs and the skins of animals producing furs.	1	0	0
On deer, buffalo, and moose skins.	0	5	0
On sheep skins.	0	4	0
On green hides of domestic animals of the United States.	0	3	0
On imported raw hides of domestic and other animals.	0	5	0

FURNITURE, ETC.—PER 1,000 POUNDS PER MILE.

On household furniture, accompanied by and actually belonging to families emigrating.	0	3	0
On carts, wagons, sleighs, plows, and mechanics' tools necessary for the owner's individual use, when accompanied by the owner, emigrating for the purpose of settlement.	0	8	0

STONE, SLATE, ETC.—PER 1,000 POUNDS PER MILE.

On tile for roofing and stoneware.	0	4	0
On fire-proof cement and drain tile.	0	2	0
On unwrought stone and slate.	0	1	0
On slate, and all stones wrought or partly wrought.	0	1	5

LUMBER, WOOD, ETC.

On timber, squared and round, per 100 cubic feet per mile, if carried in boats.	0	4	0
On the same, if carried in rafts, per 100 cubic feet per mile.	1	0	0
On the same, if cleared after the 1st of June and arriving at tide-water before the 15th of August, inclusive, per 100 cubic feet per mile.	0	7	0
On lumber carried in boats, when weighed, per 1,000 lbs. per mile, viz : ..			
On white pine, white wood, bass wood, and cedar.	0	1	5
On oak, hickory, beech, sycamore, and black walnut.	0	1	0
On spruce, maple, ash, and elm.	0	1	2
On cherry.	0	1	4
On hemlock.	0	0	6

	Cts.	m.	fr.
On boards, plank, scantling, and sawed timber, reduced to inch measure, all kinds of red cedar, cedar posts, estimating that a cord, after deducting for openings, will contain 1,000 feet, and all siding, lath, and other sawed stuff, less than one inch thick, carried in boats, (except such as is enumerated subsequently,) per 1,000 feet per mile, when not weighed	0	4	0
On hemlock, per 1,000 feet per mile, when not weighed	0	2	5
On sub 6 and 7, if transported in rafts, per 1,000 feet per mile	2	0	0
On sawdust, per 1,000 lbs. per mile	0	0	5
On mahogany (except veneering) reduced to inch measure, per 1,000 feet per mile	1	5	0
On sawed lath, of less than ten feet in length, split lath, hoop poles, hand-spikes, rowing oars, broom handles, spokes, hubs, treenails, fellies, boat knees, plane stocks, pickets for fences, and stuff manufactured or partly manufactured for chairs or bedsteads, hop poles, brush handles, brush backs, looking-glass backs, gun stocks, plow beams and plow handles, per 1,000 lbs. per mile	0	2	0
On staves and heading, empty barrels and casks, and ship knees, transported in boats, per 1,000 lbs. per mile	0	1	0
On the same, if transported in rafts, per 1,000 lbs. per mile	0	5	0
On shingles, carried in boats, per 1,000 lbs. per mile	0	1	5
On the same, if conveyed in rafts, per M. per mile	0	4	0
On split posts, (not exceeding ten feet in length,) and rails for fences, (not exceeding fourteen feet in length,) per M. per mile, carried in boats	2	0	0
On the same, if conveyed in rafts, per M. per mile	8	0	0
On wood for fuel, (except such as may be used in the manufacture of salt, which shall be exempt from toll,) and tan bark, per cord per mile	0	5	0
On the same, if transported in rafts, per cord per mile	2	0	0
On sawed stuff for window blinds, not exceeding one-fourth of an inch in thickness, and window sashes and blinds, per 1,000 lbs. per mile	0	5	0
AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTIONS, ETC.—PER 1,000 POUNDS PER MILE.			
On domestic distilled spirits, going towards tide-water	0	3	0
On wool	0	4	0
On cotton	0	1	0
On live cattle, sheep, hogs, horns, hoofs, and bones	0	2	0
On horses, (except those used exclusively for towing boats or floats)	0	2	0
On horses used exclusively for towing boats or other floats, exempt.			
On rags and junk	0	3	0
On manilla	0	4	0
On hemp and tobacco going towards tide-water	0	1	0
On tobacco going from tide-water	0	4	0
On pressed broom corn	0	2	0
On pressed hay and pressed straw	0	1	0
On corn, corn-meal, and oats	0	2	0
On wheat, flour, barley, rye, peas, and beans	0	3	0
On flour, starting and going from tide-water	0	1	0
On potatoes, apples, onions, turnips, all other esculent roots, and ice	0	1	0
On other agricultural productions of the U. States, not particularly specified	0	4	0
MERCHANDISE.—PER 1,000 POUNDS PER MILE.			
On veneering	0	8	0
On sugar, molasses, coffee, iron in bars, bundles, and sheets, steel, nail rods, boiler iron, nails and spikes, horse shoes, crockery and glassware, tin, resin, tar, pitch, turpentine, oil, anchors, chain cables, oakum, mineral water, oysters and clams, dyewoods, and other merchandise not enumerated	0	4	0
On railroad iron and railroad chairs	0	1	5
On threshing, mowing, and reaping machines, fanning mills, plows, harrows, and drill barrows	0	4	0
ARTICLES NOT ENUMERATED.			
On all articles not enumerated or excepted, per 1,000 lbs. per mile	0	4	0

BOATS AND PASSENGERS.

On boats used chiefly for the transportation of persons, navigating the canals, per mile	0	4	0
On the same, if they elect to commute for tolls upon passengers, per mile..	5	0	0
On boats used chiefly for the transportation of property, per mile.....	2	0	0
On the same, if they elect to commute for tolls upon passengers, per mile..	2	8	0
On all persons over ten years of age, per mile	0	0	5

STATISTICS OF THE BRITISH STEAM NAVY.

Of screw steamships, according to the *Liverpool Times*, afloat, England has at the present moment eleven line-of-battle ships, soon to be increased to twenty; five guardships, and seven powerful frigates, independent of smaller vessels. The following are the names, number of guns, horse-power, and stations of the most powerful of the screw fleet:—

	Guns.	Horse-Power.	
Duke of Wellington.....	180	700	Western Squadron.
Royal George.....	120	400	Devonport.
St. Jean D'Acre	101	600	Western Squadron.
Agamemnon	90	600	Bosphorus.
Cæsar.....	90	400	Not in commission.
Cressy.....	80	400	Sheerness.
James Watt	90	600	Not in commission.
Majestic.....	80	400	" "
Nile	90	500	" "
Princess Royal	90	400	Portsmouth.
Sanpareil.....	70	350	Bosphorus.
Ajax.....	58	450	Cork.
Blenheim.....	60	450	Guardship, Portsmouth.
Hogue.....	60	450	" Devonport.
Edinburgh.....	58	450	" Portsmouth.
Arrogant.....	47	350	Western Squadron.
Imperieuse	50	360	" "
Amphion.....	34	300	" "
Horatio	24	250	Guardship, Sheerness.
Tribune.....	30	300	Western Squadron.
Dauntless	24	580	Portsmouth.
Highflyer	21	250	Mediterranean.
Euryalus.....	50	490	Not in commission.

In addition to the above the following screw steamships are building, and will probably be afloat in a few months:—

	Guns.	Power.		Guns.	Power.
Royal Albert.....	120	400	Exmouth	90	400
Malborough	120	...	Hero.....	90	...
Conqueror.....	100	...	Forte	50	...
Orion.....	90	600	Chesapeake.....	50	...
Repulse.....	90	600	Curacoa.....	30	350
Hannibal.....	90	450	San Florenzo.....	50	...
Algiers	90	450			

The following are the most powerful paddle-wheel steamers now afloat:—

	Guns.	Horse-power.	
Terrible.....	21	800	Bosphorus.
Sidon.....	22	560	"
Odin.....	16	560	Western Squadron.
Retribution	28	400	Bosphorus.
Valorous	16	400	Western Squadron.
Furious	16	400	Bosphorus.
Leopard.....	17	560	Portsmouth.
Magicienne	16	400	Devonport.
Penelope.....	16	650	West Coast Africa.

BALTIMORE AND OHIO RAILROAD.

We have obtained the following very interesting and official statement of the *present* condition of the funded debt of this road, by a review of which the experienced reader will be able to arrive at a pretty accurate estimate of the general financial prospects of the company, for the residue of the fiscal year:—

The funded debt of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad Company, as appears by its report made to 30th of September, 1853, as follows:—

Loan No. 1, January, 1854	\$1,000,000 00	
Less sinking fund, applicable to its reduction	287,531 28	
		\$712,468 72
Loan No. 2, of 1867		1,000,000 00
“ 3, Iron bonds.....		566,666 67
“ 4, of 1875		1,128,500 00
“ 5, of 1880		700,000 00
“ 6, of 1885, (for \$2,500,000) now issued.....		1,281,846 25
		5,386,481 64
Add preferred stock of the State of Maryland.....		3,000,000 00
Making the whole funded debt of the company at that time		8,389,481 64
Residue of bonds of 1885, since issued		1,218,153 75
Making the whole funded debt to the present time.....		9,607,635 39
Capital stock.....		10,118,902 00

Treasurer's Office, Baltimore and Ohio Railroad Company, March 31st, 1854.

J. I. ATKINSON, Treasurer.

From the above it will be seen that the entire funded debt, upon which interest accrues, is \$9,607,635 39. Since the annual report of the president was made, it will be seen that \$1,218,153 75, being the residue of the loan of 1885, has been realized. This amount, with the net earnings of the road for the past six months, together with \$245,000 to the credit of revenue from the last year, making some \$2,200,000 in all, has been applied to the reduction of the floating debt, and to construction, which is constantly progressing. This is a highly favorable exhibit of the state of the road, and affords the assurance that, with no unforeseen contingency to affect the reasonable anticipations for the future, the company will be in a condition at the close of the fiscal year to dispose of a very considerable amount, as policy may dictate.

THE RAILROADS OF MAINE IN 1853.

We give below the returns made by the several companies to the office of the Secretary of State in Maine:—

	Miles in length.	Stock fund.	Amount of indebtedness.	Total cost of road.
Androscoggin.....	20	\$86,868	\$220,000	\$315,365
Androscoggin and Kennebec.....	55	824,131	1,048,549	2,030,140
Atlantic and St. Lawrence	149	1,692,200	3,614,520	5,306,720
Bangor and Piscataquis	12	135,000	1,650	138,913
Calais and Baring.....	6	100,000	136,563	217,255
Kennebec and Portland	72½	1,073,673	1,439,694	2,520,981
Machias Port.....	7½	75,000	800	100,000
Penobscot	64,781	78,000	Unfinish'd.
Penobscot and Kennebec.....	2½	133,866	49,657	“
Portland, Saco and Portsmouth...	51	1,337,000	132,000	1,303,195
Somerset and Kennebec	54,667	Unfinish'd.
York and Cumberland.....	18	292,649	408,192	748,699
Totals	398½	\$5,879,832	\$7,005,126	
Buckfield Branch	13		No return.	
Total miles of road.....	406½			

In addition to the above, the Boston and Maine (Mass.) Company owns some three miles in the State, but they keep only one account showing the cost and operations of

the entire line from Boston to the South Berwick Junction. The average cost of the road, however, is about \$49,600 per mile. Adding the three miles of the Boston and Maine Road, there is now finished and in operation 409½ miles of railway, costing some thirteen millions of dollars.

THE RAILROADS OF VIRGINIA.

We publish annually in the *Merchants' Magazine*, a carefully prepared statement of the length of railroads in each of the States. Alluding to this statement, which is generally transferred to other journals, the *Winchester Virginian* remarks:—

Virginia has been credited for much less than her actual share of railway enterprise. To do her justice in this respect, before her own citizens as well as those of other States, we decided to compile the subjoined list of the lines now under way within her limits or in the hands of her people. Among them are three lines, the greater part of each of which lies within Virginia, the Seaboard and Roanoke, Petersburg, and Hicksford and Gaston; and one which is principally, we believe, in North Carolina, but prosecuted mainly by Virginia capital. This is the Clarksville and Ridgeway, a link in the route from Norfolk to the Upper Roanoke. The 251 miles of the Baltimore and Ohio Road lying in this State are excluded from the sum, because on the principle we follow in the case of the above-named roads, they are assigned to Maryland.

Name of Road.	Miles opened.	Miles building.	Total miles.
Virginia Central	107	70	188
R. F. and Potomac	76	..	76
Covington and Ohio (State)	116	228
Virginia and Tennessee and branch	78	189	212
Rich. and Pot. and branches	40	..	40
Petersburg and Roanoke	60	..	60
Hicksford and Gaston	21	..	21
Norfolk and Petersburg	62	79
Seaboard and Roanoke	78	..	78
South-Side	71	49	120
Danville and branches	95	51	146
Orange and Alex. and branches	82	15	155
Manassas Gap and branch	42	19	146
Winchester and Potomac	32	..	32
Tuckahoe (coal)	5	..	5
Winifrede (do.)	5	..	5
N. W. Virginia	104	104
Blue Ridge (State)	8	8	16
Appomattox	10	..	10
Fred. and Gordonsville	46
A. L. and Hamp. and branch	166
Clarksville and Ridgeway	25	..	25
	808	654	1,958

This list will, we think, be found very nearly correct. It will be seen that Virginia has, in round numbers, 800 miles of railway in operation; 700 building; and 500 more in the hands of organized companies, every mile of which will doubtless be made in a few years. About 250 miles will probably be added to the finished track during 1854. Besides those we have named, there are others projected, to the extent of perhaps 1,000 miles or more.

NEW RAILROAD SWITCH.

An improvement in the operation of railroad switches has been made by Asa A. Simmons, Narrowburgh, N. Y. It consists in attaching one end of the ordinary connecting rod of a switch to a circular plate at any point between the center of said plate and its periphery, according to the length of stroke required. The circular plate is attached to one end of a horizontal shaft, at the opposite end of which there is a lever, by which the peculiar plate and shaft are turned, and the connecting rod and switch moved. An index is secured to the circular plate, for the purpose of denoting the exact position of the switch. Measures have been taken to secure a patent.

STEAMBOAT ENGINEERS AND PILOTS.

In November last the supervising inspectors of steamboats, appointed under the Act of August 30th, 1852, met in convention at Cincinnati, and the report of their doings has just been published. It contains the following statistics of the several districts.

	Vessels inspected.	Pilots licensed.	Engineers licensed.	Tonnage inspected.
1st District.—Portland	16	16	11	3,491
“ Boston	20	24	19	8,568
“ New London	16	18	7	4,926
2d District.—New York	185	161	365	52,229
“ Philadelphia	36	60	80	14,560
3d District.—Baltimore	34	60	58	13,112
“ Norfolk	8	14	14	2,164
“ Charleston	18	32	52	6,865
“ Savannah	8	10	20	2,496
4th District.—New Orleans	87	226	333	26,100
“ Mobile	24	102	107	4,800
“ Galveston	4	15	17	512
5th District.—St. Louis	83	302	254	27,712
“ Memphis, &c.	17	41	42	2,543
6th District.—Louisville	72	176	263	19,758
“ Nashville	14	70	83	3,401
7th District.—Pittsburg	88	148	184	13,392
“ Wheeling	24	44	76	5,724
“ Cincinnati	81	248	214	22,000
8th District.—Chicago	8	30	39	5,321
“ Detroit	32	53	58	19,518
9th District.—Buffalo	40	99	86	35,600
“ Cleveland	14	49	38	6,870
“ Oswego	7	16	11	6,700
“ Burlington	7	14	14	4,600
Total	882	2,028	2,448	317,968

EARLY HISTORY OF LAKE NAVIGATION.

According to the *Chicago Democrat*, the Griffith was the first vessel that floated upon the Western lakes. She was of 60 tons burden, completely rigged, and on board were seven small pieces of cannon, two of them brass. The keel was laid by La Salle, at Cayuga, six miles above Niagara Falls, on the 26th of January, 1679; and after experiencing great difficulty in ascending Niagara, on the 7th of August she floated upon the water of Lake Erie. A voyage was made to Green Bay, which was reached early in September. On the 18th, the vessel in charge of a pilot and five others, and laden with a rich cargo of furs, was sent back to the Niagara. Nothing was ever heard of her; but about the beginning of this century, upon a farm in Erie County, New York, near Eighteen Mile Creek, a large quantity of wrought iron, supposed to weight 700 or 800 pounds, and evidently taken from a vessel, was found much eaten by rust. About fifteen years after, immediately succeeding a heavy blow and in the same vicinity upon the beach, was found the breech of a cannon, and under it another. Words, evidently in the French Language, were upon them, and they were probably all that remained of the Griffith.

The Walk-in-the-Water, the first steamboat upon the lakes, was built at Buffalo in 1812, by Dr. Stewart, and named after a Wyandot chief who lived at Mogwago, on the Detroit River. The boat left Buffalo on her first trip on the 1st of November, 1818, under command of Captain Fish. Dr. Stewart told Mr. B. F. Stickney, at the time of her first trip, that including what he paid Fulton and Livingston for their patent, it cost him \$70,000.

In a letter written by Gouverneur Morris, in the year 1801, six years before the first steamboat, he stated that Lake Erie would float a ship of 1,000 tons burden. We believe the first steamboat of 1,000 tons burden upon Long Island Sound was the Oregon, built in 1845; and the first upon the Hudson River, the Hendrik Hudson, 1,986 tons, built the same year. The Western waters were in advance of those of the East, as the Empire, built at Cleveland in 1844, measured 1,186 tons.

NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

ADDITIONAL LIGHTHOUSE AT THE ENTRANCE OF PORT PHILIP, ALSO BEACON ON SWAN RIVER.

LIGHTHOUSE AT THE ENTRANCE OF PORT PHILIP.

The second lighthouse at Shortland's Bluff, being now nearly completed, on and after the 1st day of January next a fixed red light will be exhibited thereon, from sunset to sunrise.

The leading lighthouse tower is built of wood, painted white, and stands at an elevation of 80 feet above the level of the water, bearing from the center of the upper lighthouse on Shortland's Bluff, south, thirty-three degrees west, distant six hundred and seventy feet.

The leading light will be seen in ordinary weather ten miles to seaward, within the bearings of south one-quarter west round (westerly) to southwest one-quarter west.

The two lighthouses by day, and lights by night, kept in one line of bearing, lead in a mid-channel between Point Lonsdale and Nepean; but strangers are cautioned not to attempt the entrance by night, nor against the strength of the ebb tide by day.

BEACON ON SWAN RIVER.

A cone shaped iron beacon, painted white, elevated 50 feet above the level of the water, has been erected on Swan Point, bearing from the low lighthouse on Shortland's Bluff, north 41 degrees east. This beacon, kept open to the eastward of the low Lighthouse, leads in clear of Point Lonsdale Reef: and the flagstaff on Shortland's Bluff kept half a cable's length open to the Westward of the low Lighthouse, leads in clear of the Corsair Rock, and the other sunken dangers lying off Point Nepean; but, in all practicable cases, mariners waiting the turn of tide, entering or leaving the harbor, are recommended to keep the Point Lonsdale shore aboard, as the tide there runs fairer, and in bad weather small vessels incur less risk on the Point Lonsdale shore from the tide ripple, than towards point Nepean.

No alteration has taken place in the upper Lighthouse on Shortland's Bluff, which is as heretofore a Bright Stationary Light, one hundred and nine (109) feet above the level of the water, seen in ordinary weather twenty (20) miles to seaward, within the bearings of South round by West to Southwest by West.

The bearings are by compass, and lights at mean high water.

NAVIGATION INTO SPITHEAD.

NOTICE TO MARINERS.

TRINITY HOUSE, LONDON, 5th April, 1854.

It having been determined, in communication with the Right Honorable the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty, that a floating light vessel shall be placed to mark the channel between the Horse and Warner Shoals, *notice thereof is hereby given*, and that the said vessel will be moored in a suitable position on the west side of the channel near to the Warner Shoal; and the light exhibited thereat on the evening of the 1st of May next, and thenceforth continued every night from sunset to sunrise.

At this station, a *single revolving light* of the natural color will be shown.

Farther particulars in respect of the exact position of this vessel will be published in due course.

By order,

J. HERBERT, Secretary.

THE LIGHT SHIPS IN THE CATTEGAT.

MINISTRY OF NAVAL AFFAIRS, 14th March, 1854.

All the floating lights are now laid out and lighted.

Moreover, it is made publicly known hereby, that the light vessels at Læso Trindelen, at Kobbergrundten, and at the Anhold Knob, are in the future to be laid up on the 31st of December, supposing the ice permits them to remain on their station till then, and they will not then be laid out again before the 1st of March.

That the light vessels in Drogden and the Læso Strait are ordered to keep their stations as long as the ice permits them to do so. If the floating ice should force them to leave their stations, they will not be laid out again before the 1st of March.

When the light vessel in the Læso Strait is not on her station, on account of ice in the Cattegat, a white flag, with a blue perpendicular stripe will still, according to the notification of the 9th November, be hoisted on the lighthouses of Hanstholm and Skagen; if for other reasons it shall be obliged to leave the station a red balloon will appear on the Lighthouses of Skagen and Hirschholm.

CASUALTIES TO BRITISH SHIPPING IN FOUR YEARS.

A list of casualties to British shipping has been compiled from *Lloyd's List*, and laid before Parliament in a blue book. We find that during the last four years there happened at sea 12,363 disasters, varying in magnitude from a total shipwreck to a slight collision. Some of these items are very striking. Thus, the single item that "*The Honest Endeavor* sailed from Hull, Nova Scotia bound, and had not been heard of for three years," fails to arrest the attention so forcibly as when one is startled with the astonishing intelligence that 204 ships and their crews departed from our various ports within the four years alluded to, and not one of them was ever heard of again.

ANALYSIS OF THE 12,363 CASUALTIES REPORTED TO LLOYD'S FOR THE FOUR YEARS ENDING WITH 1850.

CANYASS.			
Driven ashore by stress of weather —vessels and cargoes partially or totally lost.	5,117	Burnt by cargoes igniting—coals, 11; flax, 1; wool, 1; cotton, 3. .	16
Collision—vessels obliged to run into port in a sinking state.	2,665	Struck by lightning and damaged. .	15
Wrecked.	2,295	Blown up—by coal-dust, 7; spon- taneous combustion, 1; gas, 4;	
Foundered.	883	powder, 1.	13
Abandoned, waterlogged, dismast- ed, on fire—crew taking to boats	679	Plundered by pirates & destroyed. .	13
Sailed, and never heard of again. .	204	Taken possession of by convicts and wrecked	1
Burnt by accident.	87	Struck by a whale and abandoned. .	1
Damaged by ice.	51	Struck by a waterspout	1
Total.			12,041
STEAM.			
Driven ashore, but got off again. . . .	103	Abandoned at sea	2
Collision at sea.	146	Capsized.	1
Wrecked.	17	Put into port in a sinking state. . .	2
Foundered	30	Sunk, and raised again.	5
Burnt	8	Sailed, and never heard of again. . .	1
Partially burnt.	7		
Total			323

One consoling fact in this terrible chronicle is, that but few accidents have occurred to ships ably manned and commanded; out of 12,000 and odd casualties, only 64 are recorded against ships of 700 tons and upwards. This is not merely in consequence of their size, but simply because in most large vessels greater care is shown in the selection of a crew, and in the appointment of a competent commander. Nearly all the losses have been sustained by vessels ranging from 90 to 500 tons, because these are the description of craft most likely to sail economically!—are often weak-handed, and liable to be commanded by men possessing few recommendations for filling the office of captain, except being part owner.

CLIPPER SHIP RED JACKET.

The extraordinarily quick passage of this new ship on her first voyage has excited considerable interest among nautical men, she having made the run from New York to Liverpool in 13 days 1 hour and 25 minutes, which is somewhat remarkable, considering the extremely boisterous weather she encountered throughout the passage. The following abstract of her log will show the distance run each day:—

1st day out run	miles	108	8th day out run.....	miles	319
2d "		150	9th "		413
3d "		265	10th "		374
4th "		311	11th "		342
5th "		217	12th "		300
6th "		106	13th "		371
7th "		121			

She had the wind from the S. E. to W. S. W., the whole passage, with very stormy weather, either snow, rain, or hail, the entire voyage; but she received no damage, and arrived in port without the loss of a single rope-yarn. She ran fifteen knots on the wind, and eighteen with the wind abeam.

The Red Jacket is a beautiful ship, of 2,400 tons burden, and was built in Rockland, Maine, by Mr. George Thomas. She is owned by Messrs. Seccomb and Taylor, of this city, and Mr. Thomas, the builder. She attracted a deal of attention in New York, and was generally admired for her beauty of model. She was commanded by Capt. Asa Eldridge, of New York, who has much experience in the Liverpool trade, and was captain of Vanderbilt's steam yacht on her recent trip to Europe. Captain Eldridge pronounces the Red Jacket a most excellent ship in every respect.

JOURNAL OF MINING AND MANUFACTURES.

MANUFACTURES OF PARIS.*

NUMBER III.

STATISTICS OF BUILDING AND CONSTRUCTION.

We have given in previous numbers the statistics relative to the different branches of industry at Paris engaged in the preparation and manufacture of food in its various forms. These composed the first of the thirteen groups into which the Report classifies the industrial pursuits of Paris. We come now to the second group, which takes in the branches of industry concerned in the building and furnishing of houses, and kindred pursuits. These are twenty-one in number, and the enumeration shows how minute and exact the Report is in its classifications:—

Builders of boats and rafts and those who break them up.	Makers of arbor and trellis work.
Contractors for paving.	Decorative artists.
Carpenters.	Contractors for street paving.
Contractors for roofing and plumbing.	House painters.
Ladder-makers.	Stove-makers.
Makers of letters in relief (for signs.)	Sawyers of wood for carpentering.
Masons.	Iron work in houses.
Marble workers.	Tombstone cutters.
House finishers, (who make stairs, doors, windows, &c.)	Layers of sidewalks.
Floor-makers.	Contractors of scavengering.
	Baluster-makers.

Boat-building.—Few boats are built at Paris, but many are broken up. Boats coming from the Upper Seine, loaded with wood and charcoal, are rudely constructed

* In the *Merchants' Magazine* for April, 1853, we gave an account of the Commission of Inquiry into the Industry of Paris, and of the report published by it. See *Merchants' Magazine*, vol. xxviii., page 403; see also, for previous numbers of the series, vol. xxviii., page 760, June, 1853, and vol. xxix., page 360, September, 1853.

where wood is cheap, and are sold to be broken up, it being more economical to build new ones for each trip than to take them up the Seine again. Number of employers, 16; of whom 14 employ 2 to 10 men.

Amount of business in 1847.....	365,500 francs
" " 1848.....	129,700 "
Diminution.....	65 per cent.

Of 53 men employed in this pursuit, 52 occupy their own apartments, and one occupies furnished lodgings. Of 49 workmen, 36 read and write. Their condition, as a general thing, is comfortable; but, like all men who work in the water, they are inclined to the use of ardent spirits, and some of them are reputed very irregular.

Contractors for Paving.—The manufacture of tiles and brick is mainly carried on out of the city, but some brick-makers take contracts for paving, and employ men in the city. Number of employers, 16.

Amount of business in 1847.....	302,500 francs
" " 1848.....	111,900 "

Average pay of the men, 3 francs 6 centimes; lowest pay, 2 francs 50 c.; highest 5 francs. Of 63 workmen, 41 can read and write.

Carpenters.—This head includes comparatively few employers, because carpentering requires the use of much space for yards and lumber, which it is difficult to procure in Paris, and which must be sought beyond the *barrière*. Number of employers in Paris, 125.

Amount of business in 1847.....	16,187,000 francs
" " 1848.....	4,518,000 "
Diminution " 1848.....	72 per cent.

The average pay of the men is 4 fr. 89 c.; it varies from 2 fr. 50 c. to 8 fr. 78 per cent of the workmen can read and write. They are generally industrious and regular; they often assist each other, and have societies for the relief of their brother carpenters (the *Compagnons*) out of work.

Roofing and Plumbing.—Under this head are included all who roof houses whatever the material they employ, whether zinc, slate, or tiles; and also those who do the plumbers' work, such as laying service pipes. Number of employers, 119.

Amount of business in 1847.....	6,082,600 francs
" " 1848.....	3,100,000 "

Workmen employed in 1847, 1,166; workmen employed in 1848, 632; average pay of workmen, 4 fr. 20 c. per day. It varies from 2 fr. 25 c. to 10 fr., but only 21 receive more than 6 fr. 85 out of 100 can read and write. The men are generally regular, industrious, and in comfortable circumstances.

Ladders.—The making of ladders forms a special branch of industry, but it is sometimes carried on by cabinet-makers and turners. The full extent of this branch, therefore, is not shown under the present head. Number of employers, 8; amount of business in 1847, 64,900 fr. Hardly anything was done in 1848. Average pay of the workmen, 3 fr. 81 c. All the men can read and write.

Signs in Relief Letters.—Letters in relief of wood, zinc, and copper, form the object of a special branch of industry, which is in some degree connected with house painting, and employs several classes of workmen—those who make the letters, those who paint, and who gild. Number of employers, 22.

Amount of business in 1847.....	487,000 francs
" " 1848.....	98,000 "

Reduction, 80 per cent. Workmen employed, 109; 79 of the workmen are paid by

the day; 16 by the job. Average pay, 4 fr. 32 c. per day; lowest pay, 2 fr. 75 c.; highest, 6 fr. 98 per cent of the workmen can read and write. The men are for the most part well behaved; some are very dissipated.

Masons.—Formerly land owners erected their own houses, either for occupation or as an investment; but the rapid increase of population, the subdivision of large city estates, the opening of new quarters, have encouraged building enterprise and made building a regular branch of industry, with its contractors and traders in houses. Another result has been speculation, which has often passed the limits of prudence. The prospects of investment have been exaggerated, too many buildings have been erected; and for thirty years past this branch of industry has been visited with periodical crises. These contractors do not themselves come under any classification in the report, as they do not employ the workmen, but the master mechanics or sub-contractors in each branch. Of these, the first division is the master masons. Number of employers, 369. This number does not include the numerous employers who live in the *ban-lieu*.

Amount of business in 1847, 26,853,740 fr.; number of men, 9,287. After the revolution of February, building enterprise was almost entirely brought to a stand-still; little was done, except in the way of repairs. At the height of this crisis, a decree of July 4, 1848, established a sub-office of Security, authorized to loan to contractors on real and personal security. These securities were transferable by simple indorsement at the National Office of Discount. In pursuance of this decree, the office and sub-office opened credits with 73 contractors, credits to the amount of 3,993,000 fr. By means of this relief, 98 houses were built or completed in Paris, among which were 18 houses on the Boulevard Beaumarchais.

Of the 9,287 workmen, 4,859 are stationary; 4,428 are transient. Of the 4,859 stationary workmen, 446 work in shops; 4,402 work out in the city. Under the head of masons are included stonemasons and sawyers, and the working masons. Of the latter, there are three classes—the first are the *companions*, who receive the highest pay, execute difficult jobs, receive the instructions of the master or contractor, and act as foremen. The second class is the *Taloches* or *Limousins*; the latter term, at first applied to workmen coming from Haute Vienne and La Creuse, has now become a technical term applied to this class of workmen, whatever the department they come from; *limosiner* means to lay foundations and raise the heavy walls: the *Limousins* have an extraordinary skill in building walls, which they construct with rapidity and precision, without other guide than the plumb-line. The third class is the servants, *garçons* or hod-men, who mix the mortar, take it up in a hod, carry stones, and watch at the foot of the scaffolds, in order to warn passers-by to beware of falling stones. This last is an important function, which we should be glad to see assigned to any class of men in the United States; but here the rule seems to be all building is done not at the risk of the builder, but of the community, and a house in course of erection is a standing terror to all passers-by.

Of 9,286 masons, 3,762 receive less than 3 fr.; 5,363 receive between 3 and 5 fr.; 111 receive more than 5 fr.

As regards personal habits and condition, 39 per cent keep house; 61 per cent occupy furnished lodgings; 60 per cent can read and write. The large number occupying furnished lodgings is owing to the fact that a majority of masons come from the provinces, principally the departments of La Creuse and Haute Vienne, and pass the winter at Paris, but do not establish themselves there. Formerly these migrations were made in companies, led by a companion mason from Paris, who recruited the men in the country and engaged them for a year. At Paris he takes charge of their board and clothing. Within twenty years, while the number has not fallen off, it

has been more usual to engage for the season, and the masons travel on their own account.

The lodging-houses generally accommodate from three to six men—all bachelors, often from the same village; they support each other, and seldom mingle with those of other districts. Persons of other callings are rarely found among them, and women never. They generally sleep in couples, in rooms containing four to five beds. They pay six or seven francs per month each for what they have, soup every evening and a shirt washed once a week.

Almost all the men are well behaved, generally sober, and living frugally, and seldom drinking wine, except on pay-days. The habit of saving almost reaches the point of avarice, so anxious are they to take back something, as they say, to their country, where twenty-five centimes buy as much as ten francs at Paris. They have not the versatility of other classes of workmen, who know how to turn to their advantage all the resources of a great city. Among men of all occupations who are eager to open the doors of carriages, sell checks at the theater, collect ends of cigars, and to eat what the soldiers leave of their soup at the doors of the barracks, a mason is never seen.

The mason's occupation is not without its dangers; standing upon high scaffolds, or upon the wall which they are tearing down, they are sometimes thrown down with the stones they would remove; yet there are no societies for mutual aid among them. They are distrustful, and the attempts of some contractors to form funds for mutual relief by retaining part of their pay, have only partially succeeded.

This distrust, which separates the mason from his companions, does not seem to have been a characteristic in former periods. In the middle ages, masons traveling from city to city in companies, formed powerful and compact associations. The free masons built the most beautiful churches in the *ogival* style; they counted in their numbers eminent artists; and in the beautiful cathedrals scattered by them over all Western Europe, we read on the tombstone of the skillful architect that he was a *Master-mason*. They had their mysteries of initiation, and originated *companionship*. Afterwards the association lost its artistic and commercial character, and became political. Gradually artisans retired, workmen withdrew; at present, although still traveling in numerous bands, they no longer form any company *du devoir*.

RUNDLE'S METHOD OF SEPARATING GOLD.

In a letter to the *London Mining Journal*, J. H. Rundle, of the Colonial Gold Works, at Rotherhithe, states that mercury, in the separation of gold from auriferous sands, unites with it in varying quantities. The quantity of gold absorbed by mercury depends, he says, on the following conditions: first, the more or less finely divided state of gold in the ore; second, the length of time during which the mercury remains in contact with it; third the temperature at which the amalgamation is conducted; fourth, the presence of other metals in the amalgam.

The following method of separating gold from the mercury, when the latter by assay is found too rich, is employed: "The mercury after being strained is assayed; granulated zinc, previously cleaned with dilute sulphuric acid, is then added to it. As soon as the zinc is completely amalgamated, which takes place in a few hours, the mercury is well stirred and re-strained; a solid amalgam is obtained, containing, practically speaking, the whole of the gold, and the greater part of the zinc which has been added. The proportion of zinc necessary is about one-third of the weight of the gold to be extracted, that is, an equivalent of zinc to one of gold. With less, the whole of the gold is not obtained. If more than an equivalent be employed, the mercury retains a considerable quantity of zinc; the difficulty of refining the gold is also increased. When the object is to extract all the gold, it is advisable to use a small excess of zinc, as there are generally traces of other metals in the mercury which interferes with the uniformity of the results."

HAMILTON'S SHIP TIMBER SAW MILL.

Hamilton's ship timber saw mill was invented some years since, and after material improvements, was perfected and introduced three or four years ago, into the government dockyards at Toulon, and into several of the private yards in Great Britain. In one of the latter no less than four mills have been in constant and successful operation upwards of two years, and each mill, as stated by the ship builders who use them, making a saving over manual labor of nearly \$5,000 per annum.

The advantages gained by the use of these saw-mills are four-fold; viz., saving of time, of material, of labor, and the ability to produce more perfect work than can possibly be effected by hand labor; it being a well established fact, that a greater mathematical precision can be attained by machinery, properly adjusted, than by relying upon the eye, the hand, and the judgment.

In this machine, all the varied curves which may be required in a ship's frame are sawed with perfect accuracy, requiring no after labor in trimming; every possible bevel, however varying, being made in the same timber, with the utmost mathematical nicety. And there is no reason why these machines should not be established in all our great ship-timber regions, and the various timbers sawed and adjusted to their places, on the soil upon which it grew, as that our Merchants' Exchange should have been actually constructed in the granite quarries of Massachusetts.

Not only has the price of labor been very greatly enhanced, but the price of nearly every article used in the construction of vessels has been much increased within the past two years. Any improvement, therefore, which will lessen either the cost of labor or material, ought to receive the earnest attention of our builders and ship owners. It can be shown at any time that a single machine of Hamilton's will prepare as much timber for immediate setting up, in a given time, as can be wrought out by the hands of fifteen of our most skillful artisans in the same period. We have seen a log, (in toughness almost equal to lignumvitæ,) of eleven feet in length, sawed and beveled on both sides, in the incredibly short space of twelve minutes.

This invention has already been thoroughly tested by the principal constructors in the United States Navy, by large numbers of our leading ship builders, and by many of our most considerate and practical merchants. And in these days of progress, it is safe to predict that these invaluable mills, will, ere long, be set up in every ship yard on the Atlantic coast, on the Lakes, and upon our great rivers.

That distinguished man, and truly great naval constructor, the late Foster Rhodes, expressed the following opinion, which, embodying as it does, the sentiments of all the practical men who have seen the operations of the machine, we quote: "It completely supplies those two great wants so long sought in naval architecture; the production of any required curves in timber, by the rapid process of mill sawing, and the following with the saw any natural curve in the fibres, without impairing the strength of the timber by grain-cutting."

MANUFACTURE OF PAPER FROM STRAW AND BAGGING.

We learn from *Newton's London Journal* (English) that George Stiff, of London, has taken out a patent for manufacturing paper from straw and bagging. The following is a brief description of the process:—

In carrying out his invention, the patentee makes use of straw, or grass, "gunney bagging," and "hemp bagging," preferring, however, the employment of straw. When straw, grass, or vegetable fiber of any similar kind is employed, the first process made use of is to cut the straw or fiber into lengths of about half an inch, which may be done in a chaff-cutting machine, or any similar apparatus heretofore employed for the purpose; after which, the straw or fiber is winnowed, by any suitable contrivance, in order to separate the knots and other portions of the fibre which could not be readily reduced to the consistency of pulp. The straw or fiber thus treated, or the gunney bagging, or hemp bagging, after having been suitably prepared, is placed in a boiler or vessel, together with a sufficient quantity of clear water to cover the fiber or other material, and boiled for the space of one or two hours. This boiler or vessel is furnished with partition or diaphragm, finely perforated, or composed of gauze or similar material, through which the water may be drained off from the fiber or other material, and carried away through a discharge-pipe, which is brought into connection with the lower surface of the boiler or vessel. After this process, the fiber or other material is to be immersed in lime-water, in the proportion of about 1 cwt. of lime-water to every hun-

dred weight of material, and to remain so immersed for the space of about 24 hours, the mixture being occasionally stirred. After the expiration of this time the lime-water is to be drained off and a fresh solution poured on, which is again drained off as before. When this operation has been continued during about three days, the fiber or other material is to be placed in water, to which alkali has been added in the proportion of 10 lbs. of alkali to every 1 cwt. of water, and boiled for the space of two or three hours; the alkaline solution is then drained off in the manner before described. After the fiber of the material has been thus treated, it is washed and bleached in the same manner as when bleaching rags; that is to say, by running it into tanks or vessels, with a quantity of chlorine or bleaching powder sufficient to bleach it to that degree of whiteness which is required for the quality of paper to be made. After being thus bleached, the straw or other fiber or material may be washed and beaten, and reduced to pulp or half-stuff, in the usual manner; and the pulp or half-stuff may be converted into such paper as shall be required by the process heretofore in use.

The patentee claims the substitution of lime water for other alkaline solutions heretofore employed in the maceration of straw, grass, or other vegetable fiber, or gunney bagging, or hemp bagging, used to form the pulp or half-stuff in the manufacture of such descriptions of paper as are produced from the aforesaid materials.

THE GLASS TRADE AND MANUFACTURE.

At Sunderland, England, Mr. James Hartley, the extensive glass manufacturer, recently, in a lecture on the art and manufacture of glass, stated the following interesting facts in reference to that business:—

Previous to the repeal of the glass duty in 1845, there were 14 companies engaged in the manufacture of crown and sheet glass; they were increased during 1846 and 1847 to 24, and now are reduced to 10. In 1844, the last year of the duty, there was made by the 14 companies 6,700 tons of crown and sheet glass, paying £500,000 duty; there are now 10 companies, working 40 furnaces, with 284 pots, making 35,500,000 feet annually, equal to 15,000 tons, value £225,000, being an increase of considerably more than cent per cent, and at a charge to the public of less than one-half of the former duty. In polished plate there are six companies, being the same as existed in 1837, and, consequently, their number has remained stationary since the repeal of the duty, but their production is estimated to have doubled. They now make 3,000,000 feet polished plate annually, equal to 5,500 tons, valued at £450,000. Of Hartley's patent rough plate, which has only been fairly in the market about two years, the quantity now manufactured annually is 2,240,000 feet of 2 lbs. to the foot, valued at £30,000. The produce of the little kingdom of Belgium, the greatest glass producing country in the world, is 50,000,000 feet of sheet glass annually, equal to 22,300 tons, or 25 per cent more than is made in England of both crown and sheet glass. They export of this quantity 85 per cent, of which 6 per cent comes to England, and they retain 15 per cent for home consumption; England retains 85 per cent of its produce for home consumption, and exports 15 per cent, being about double what she imports. In Hartley & Co.'s glass tariff there are 7,329 figures; also 17 descriptions of glass with 51 thicknesses.

MANUFACTURE OF AMERICAN STEEL.

Mr. Thaddeus Selleck, (as we learn from the *Tribune*), well known as an ingenious iron-master, informs us that he has just succeeded in making cast steel of the finest quality from the ore of the Franklinite Iron Company, Franklin-Town, Sussex Co., New Jersey. Said ore was deoxydized at Sidney Forge, in Sussex Co., and then melted at the Adirondack Steel Works, Jersey City, and the product of this melting is pronounced by the best judges equal to any cast steel in market. We are not aware that any steel, no matter of what quality, was ever made so easily and cheaply before. We trust that this is the beginning of the emancipation of this country from her long dependence on England for steel. We are assured that fine razors, equal to the best imported, have already been made of this steel, from ore once melted with anthracite alone, at a cost far below the price of steel in any market. If there be no mistake in this, the production of this steel is an event in our national growth of more importance than the battle of New Orleans. It will doubtless draw the attention of metallurgists generally to the possibility of making steel, from fit ores or combinations of ores, at far less expense than the process has hitherto involved.

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

MERCANTILE EDUCATION AT ANTWERP.

It has always afforded us pleasure to note the practical and the useful in the progress of society; and we confess to no little gratification, says the *Commercial Bulletin*, in perusing a document handed to us a few evenings since by our esteemed friend H. Meugens, Esq., Belgian consul for New Orleans. This document contains a statement and details of a higher grade of commercial institute, formed under the auspices of the Belgian government, than we ever met with before.

The Coburgs bid fair to hold the highest rank in the old world. The favorite project of Prince Albert carried out in the Great Exhibition of 1862 has given an impetus to the arts and to useful inventions which, we trust, as the stone cast into the pool spreads the circling waves over its surface, will carry the impulse outward and onward until the wide world reaps the benefits which its industrial exhibition was well calculated to produce. Another of this family has originated the grand scheme which, when properly matured and established, will give the Belgian merchant a name and rank second to none.

"Practice," as said, "is the soul of Commerce," and this appears to be fully kept in view throughout the whole course pursued in the proposed institute, while at the same time theory goes hand in hand with equal step—still further other and appropriate studies combined, afford the future merchant all the advantages the counting-room and the university can give.

The location is Antwerp, and the plan comprehends a vast trading community on the largest scale, divided into sections kept perfectly separate and distinct, and each section representing a designated portion of the commercial world. One supposed to be at Paris, and showing a Parisian banking house with all its routine of business; another at London, and then the office of a large ship-owner; a third, that of a commercial house at Hamburg; a fourth, insurance office at Antwerp; here a New York business house; then another of far-off Australia, at Sydney; others of Rio, Havana, Odessa, Alexandria, etc. Importing and exporting, whether on account or consignment, freight, commission, insurance, etc., are all daily and duly attended to. Books regularly kept, and everything conducted as though real business was actually involved, in all its details and ramifications.

Thorough instructions are given in political economy, statistics, exchange and custom-house regulations of all countries, maritime and commercial law, general history of Commerce and industry, commercial and industrial geography, history of staple products and manufactures, etc. English, German, French, Spanish, and Italian are to be taught, both as to correspondence in these languages and to speaking them fluently. At the completion of the course, judges, appointed by the government, will deliver to each of the students whose merit entitles him to it, a diploma of capacity, and he who obtains the first place receives a traveling purse from the Belgian government, and authority and permission to travel for several years at its expense.

The programme of the courses, and all the regulations, are approved annually by the government and by the city administration.

The institution is under the direction and control of seven commissioners, two of whom are chosen by the government, two by the Chamber of Commerce, and two by the Common Council of Antwerp, the Burgomaster of that city acting as President.

We have been thus particular in describing this institution, because we feel an interest in all that tends to advance the commercial community as a body, and we think there are merchants in this country who, if the matter was once properly brought before their minds, would feel pleasure in endowing and establishing something of the same kind, adapted to the wants and characteristics of our people. How much better for a young man intended for Commerce to commence his career thoroughly drilled and ready to take his place in active life, prepared to decide correctly and advisedly, on the questions appertaining to his business, whether foreign or domestic, brought before him in his daily intercourse with the world. We have a military and a naval school equal to any, certainly not surpassed by any in the world. We still need a commercial and an agricultural one, in which a uniform and perfect system of a like grade and thorough instruction in all that pertains to Commerce and agriculture should be given to those who will likely be engaged in after life in those pursuits.

COMMERCIAL VIEW OF TEMPERANCE.

The *Philadelphia Merchant* says: We shall not here enter into any defense of the distinction between moderate drinkers and temperance people; nor shall we affirm either that all the intemperate folks deserve to be in prison, or that all teetotalers receive their just deserts by managing to keep out. We shall merely call attention, briefly, to a common-sense commercial view of temperance.

The money expended annually in intoxicating beverages defies calculation; and it cannot be doubted that millions of dollars are thus diverted from honorable, because useful, trade. In the ratio that the bar-room prospers, the merchant suffers loss. Every dollar spent in liquor by the laboring man or the mechanic, deducts one dollar's worth of necessities or comforts from the just expectations of his family. Shoes, clothing, provisions, sugar, furniture, and all other useful or essential things, are either wholly cut off from the list of the husband's expenditures, or greatly diminished in their quality or quantity, for the use of his household.

We here speak in a general way. There may be exceptions, as in cases of a competency not yet squandered in wine, strong drink, or other destructive beverages. The masses of mankind seldom accumulate property. Usually they spend as they go, and are glad if they can make both ends meet at the end of the year. Surely it is best that they should do this by contributing as much as possible to the happiness and comfort of their families; and it is an easy question for all philanthropists to decide, whether the avails of labor shall be devoted to the purchase of whisky or flour, brandy or beef, gin or shoes, wine or sugar, beer or potatoes, grog or clothes.

The merchant has also his own interest at stake, and there can be no impropriety in considering *his own advantage* when it coincides with the well-being of his neighbor. The liquor seller is directly pitted against the dealer in all wholesome and useful articles of consumption, and we submit that all merchants—by which we mean all traders in the comforts and conveniences of social life—should array themselves promptly and decidedly on the side of temperance and against all forms of alcohol as a leverage. We will not now insist that they should take ground in favor of the Maine Law, though it is clear that the nearer the community is brought to total abstinence from intoxicating drinks, the more largely and certainly will the interest of the merchant be promoted.

GROWTH OF COMMERCE.

All that any one has to do, says the *Philadelphia Merchant*, to find a specimen of the extension of Commerce is to take up the history of some article which has come into general use within a few years. Take, for instance, gutta-percha. In 1844 only 200 lbs. of this gum were exported from Singapore for an experiment, and so speedily did this article get into use, that in 1849 over two million of pounds were exported from that same place. How much from elsewhere we know not; but think of the growth of Commerce in this one article, from one port in five years, from two hundred to two millions of pounds!

When Webster made his great plea in the India-rubber Case, many thought it ludicrous to find him so eloquent on the uses to which that article would yet be put. But that eminent lawyer always looked into the facts of every case he undertook, and he was greatly surprised to see what was doing, and would be doing, by india-rubber. One of the latest uses is its application as flexible gas pipes—one of the handiest arrangements for a chamber, sitting-room, or study. By it gas can be brought to a movable stand on a table, where it will burn like an astral lamp. But a still later use is that of the "Great Coat Umbrella," a Parisian invention, intended to serve as a great coat and an umbrella. It is made of any impervious material, and has, running along the lower edge, an air-proof tube. Under the collar is a little blow-hole communicating with this tube. The wearer applies his mouth to this hole, and with a few vigorous exhalations he inflates it with air. The tube takes the consistency of a hoop, the great coat takes the form of a diving-bell, and the drops fall a long way outside the wearer's feet.

Some of our ingenious mechanics must take this idea and invent something which will serve as a lady's fan, and yet capable of expanding into a parasol or umbrella. What a sensation might be caused in Chesnut-street some spring day, when the fair ladies are fanning themselves because of the heat caused by shopping, and a little shower coming up, lo! fans become umbrellas, and the flying ribbons and feathers are protected. May we be there to see!

MERCANTILE LIBRARY ASSOCIATION OF SAN FRANCISCO.

FROM THE ALTA CALIFORNIAN.

The Mercantile Library Association of San Francisco has had its library open nearly a year. It began with about 1,500 volumes of the library of Gen. Hitchcock, and about 1,100 volumes have since been added, so that the stock of books now numbers about 2,600. Among these are some very curious volumes; one is a manuscript book about 600 years old, and it is so neatly written that a close inspection is necessary to do away with the first impression that the book is printed. There is a full file of the "*Gentleman's Magazine*" since 1731, and there is a complete file of the "*Edinboro' Magazine*" since its foundation. The library, though not very large, contains a large proportion of standard works, and is particularly well provided with American authors. The original stock were all exceedingly valuable books, for Gen. Hitchcock is not less a thorough scholar than an able soldier.

The association is called the *Mercantile Library*, but there is no distinction in regard to membership between merchants and men of any other occupation. At the late election, however, there was quite an anxiety that the officers of the institution should be all merchants. This demand was at first looked upon as rather unjust to some members not merchants who had done a great deal for the association, which would have failed entirely if left to the support of merchants only. The result, however, has been that the new officers have entered zealously into the performance of their duty, and the merchants, as a class, take more interest in the library, and the association is now in a more flourishing condition than ever, and promises to become, at no distant day, such a library association as the merchants of the third commercial city of the Union should support. There are about 250 members, though there should not be less than a thousand. The reading room contains a very extensive collection of the latest papers and periodicals from all portions of the State and Union, including all the daily city papers, which the librarian preserves upon file for future reference. There have been as yet but five large donations. The principal donors, so far, have been Gen. Hitchcock, who gave the original collection, at a very low sum for California; Mr. Haskell, of Adams & Co., who gave a collection worth about \$500; Mayor Garrison, who gave \$500 in cash; and Col. Crockett, and the present President, D. S. Turner, both of whom have spent much money and labored zealously to place the library in successful operation.

ADULTERATION OF LIQUORS.

Eminent chemists assert, says the *Albany Evening Journal*, that nine-tenths, at least, of all the liquors consumed in the United States are more or less drugged. To say that half of all that pretends to come across the Atlantic is wholly manufactured on this side of it, would be to fall short of the truth.

There are numbers who live and thrive by such nefarious trade. Long practice in the use of sugar of lead, capsicum, acids, aloes, juniper berries, verdigris, logwood, &c., &c., in varying and nicely graduated proportions, has enabled them to bring the art to a degree of perfection that seems almost fabulous. Cheap Monongahela whisky brought into their vaults by the hogshead, comes out bottled and ready for sale as Madeira, Cognac, Champagne, Pale Brandy, Cream of the Valley, and Old Port. In these, the color, flavor, and smell of the originals will be so closely imitated, that experienced taste is deceived by them. So complete and minute are their operations, that not only are foreign brands forged, and the shape of bottles, the devices of seals and corks imitated, but even artificial dust and cobwebs are fabricated to give them an air of respectable antiquity.

If other proof of this were needed, besides the results of chemical analysis, it might be found in the facts that more Port is drank in the United States in one year than passes through the custom-house in ten; that more Champagne is consumed in America alone than the whole Champagne district produces; that Cognac brandy costs four times as much in France, where it is made, as it is sold for in our corner grogeries; and that the failure of the whole grape crop in Madeira produced no apparent diminution in the quantity, nor at all corresponding increase in the price, of the wine.

It is these compounds that madden and destroy such multitudes in our towns and cities. In vine growing countries, where wine is cheap and plentiful and its use almost universal, there are none of these horrors of intemperance that shock and alarm

us here. France, Italy, Spain, suffer no more from the free use of their wines, than we do from our cider, or "Sparkling Catawba."

If none but pure liquor was permitted to be sold, its price would instantly become so great as to put it beyond the reach of those who now fall victims to "red eye" and "rot-gut." Genuine brandy, gin, and rum, are the most costly of all fermented drinks, instead of being, as we are accustomed to think, the cheapest. To say nothing of the cost of transportation, they cannot be bought on the spot where they are made at anything like the rates they are sold at in our drinking saloons. Brands that at wholesale bring \$3 a bottle, are sold at retail for three cents a glass!

A law providing for the prohibition and punishment of these adulterations could be faithfully carried into effect, for all parties would have a common interest in its enforcement. It could be resisted by few, for no man *wants* to drink these poisons, and no dealer would acknowledge that he sold them. Temperance men would gain their end of driving these beverages out of use, and all respectable liquor merchants would profit by the rise in prices. Constitutional rights would not be more infringed than by the detection and punishment of any other fraud; and no property would be destroyed except the liquid poisons and the implements of their manufacture.

THE IMPORTANCE OF GETTING GOLD.

The Boston *Transcript* truly says (what the *Merchants' Magazine* has often said before) that it is a great thing to be rich, but it is a greater thing to have the reputation of being rich. It is not the wealth which a man expends, but that which he is supposed to possess, which gives him importance in the world. We know an old landlady who, though she charged all travelers alike, was careful to ascertain if her guest was "smart" in appearance, and if so the best in the house was placed before him, while a plainer man, who paid the same amount, was put off with meaner food. And so it is universally. The rich man gets more for his money than the poor man. And of course he is wiser! His opinions upon all subjects are listened to with the greatest deference.

But let him lose his wealth, and what a poor, weak fool he becomes! As Shakspeare says—"Men's judgments are a parcel of their fortunes." Gold is therefore not only powerful but wise, in the public estimation. It is not the man, but the money, that is respected. The servant has become the master, and governs alike both the man who has it and him who has it not. Great is gold; and therefore to be sought after not only by the evil but by the good, for social influences which it confers, whereby the possessor may become useful to society by his precepts and example. Now if the reader would get gold, get it fairly, get it honestly, get it wisely, and above all use it well, let him invest a gold V. (good money of paper will do) in the *Merchants' Magazine*, and then "read, mark, learn, and inwardly digest," and outwardly put in practice its "facts and figures," and what is of more importance, its maxims of mercantile morality, and our word for it, he will win gold from mines, and golden opinions from "all sorts of men."

MERCANTILE AMBITION.

The true province of the merchant is not merely to sell to his customers such goods as they may order, but it is incumbent upon him to keep himself so posted as to enable him not only to purchase to advantage himself, but to advise his customers in regard to all the newest, most economical and appropriate styles of goods in his peculiar branch of trade. He thus advances their interest by securing to them a wider sale and a more speedy return of their outlay, and renders their commercial transactions mutually more advantageous to both parties. By energy, liberality, and candor, the shrewd merchant unites his interest with that of his customers, secures an extensive and permanent trade, and in due time achieves a fortune.

In those branches of business affected not only by some general change in the wants of society, or the new application of mechanical skill, but by the more fickle and often arbitrary behests of taste or conventional caprice, the merchant has a field for the exercise of all those talents which render the scholar learned, the artist eminent, and the statesman illustrious. The candidate for the highest civic honors has not before him a more worthy object to prompt his ambitious aspirations. Hence he often encounters labors and difficulties and privations with an energy and self-denial which command success.

ELEMENTS OF SUCCESS IN BUSINESS.

What are they? Knowledge to plan, enterprise to execute, and honesty and truthfulness to govern all. Without these elements, without them deeply impregnated on his nature, no man can conduct any business successfully. Without them, he is like a ship that has lost its rudder, or an engine that has no regulator. With them, success is certain—as sure as the decrees of destiny. But with them, there are other qualities which must be considered. A man must not waste his life away in small things, if he would achieve honor or renown. He must strike boldly, lay out gigantic plans, follow great thoughts, and drive them, curbed by reason, to a successful issue, as he would drive noble steeds to the end of a journey. He must have the boldness to grasp, the vigor and intelligence to execute. He must look above the ordinary ideas of those in the same business as himself, and attain an eminence far above them—one they may have observed, but had not courage and resolution to ascend. It is a trite saying that some men are great because their associates are little. A bragging captain of country militia, a spouting demagogue, and the chief of a half exterminated horde of savages, are all examples of the truth of the observation. None of these must be emulated; none of the traits of their characters must be held up as models. A man who would acquire fame in the present age of social and political progression, must not be behind the times. He must not live in the past, but in the future. He must not only be a thinking man, but a working machine—know how to form great plans, and how to put them into force. Mind must be the monarch of matter, and annihilate time and space. Man should not be an animal, nor a mere machine of flesh and blood; he is a child of God, and should copy from his Maker. He should not be a mere earth-worm; but live as befits a being with a highly-gifted and immortal soul!

There are men who peddle sand to gain their bread; there are others who just as easily build cities, create kingdoms, and revolutionize one-fourth of the world. One of the first sect drives an old horse and cart before your door, unloads his sand, carries it into the cellar and deposits it in a bin, pointed out by a greasy-looking servant girl, and chalks the number of measures down with a smile of satisfaction, as he wipes the sweat from his brow. A member of the other sits by his fireside, reads the news, and sends a vessel with a valuable cargo up the Mediterranean to run the blockade of the Baltic, and give him a clear profit of fifty thousand dollars! Both are men; nothing more or less. Each has bones, flesh, and muscle; eyes to see, and ears to hear; and perhaps in all physical respects, one is just as well provided for as the other. Where, then, lies the difference? Not in the body, but in the mind; mind rules matter. One lives by a sort of an animal instinct, and is a sort of a living automaton; the other lives by calling into exercise the all-powerful faculties of an immortal soul, and is a possessor, in a humble degree, of the power and magnitude that characterizes his God!

SLAVERY FOR MONEY.

We pity the man who wears out his energies in the accumulation of riches, which when amassed, he will have lost the capacity to enjoy. He finds himself at the end of his labors a guest at his own feast, without an appetite for its dainties. The wine of life is wasted, and nothing remains but the lees. The warm sympathies of his heart have been choked by his inexorable spirit of avarice, and they cannot be resuscitated. The fountain-head of his enthusiasm is sealed; he looks at all things in nature and in art with an eye of calculation; hard matter of fact is the only pabulum his mind can feed on; the elastic spring of impulse is broken; the poesy of existence is gone.

Are wealth and position an equivalent to these losses? Is not the millionaire, who has acquired wealth at such a cost, a miserable bankrupt? In our opinion, there is little to choose on the score of wisdom between the individual who recklessly squanders his money as he goes along in folly, and the false economist who denies himself the wholesome enjoyments of life, in order to swell the treasure which, in the hardening process of scraping up he had been too mean to spend, and too selfish to give away.

The only rational way to live is to mix labor with enjoyment—a streak of fat and a streak of lean. There is nothing like a streaky life; a pleasant mixture of exertion, thankfulness, love, jollity, and repose. The man who slaves for riches, makes a poor return to that God who took the trouble of making him for a better purpose.

THE BOOK TRADE.

- 1.—*English Serfdom and American Slavery.* By LUCIEN B. CHASE. New York : Long Brothers.

Here is a work, the character of which may be in a measure inferred from its title. It is a forcible presentation of the "mild beauties" of the serfdom system under which the masses of England suffer, as contrasted with the institution of slavery on our own soil. The author, Hon. Lucien B. Chase, ex-member of Congress, is a gentleman who makes no hap-hazard statements, and arrives at no impulsive conclusions. Whatever pictures he draws have their basis and color in facts—facts that challenge scrutiny from the record. Around an interesting thread of romance, running through his work, the author has thrown his web of facts and arguments, making it very plain that the government and institutions under which caste is permitted to crush the poor and lowly forever; under which imprisonment for debt, evictions, and a worse than slave life in the mines and factories, impressments into the navy, &c., awaken no loud voice of condemnation, are not preferable even to the worst social and political conditions of our own country. Mr. Chase has not set himself up as the vindicator or apologist of American slavery, further than as he brings it in favorable contrast with English serfdom. He carefully avoids passionate assault and exposure on the one hand, and partial defense on the other. His discussion of the question is candid, and if the reader is swayed to one side or the other, he feels that the facts developed have swayed him. Now, that the Uncle-Tom's Cabin sort of books have had their run, it is only fair that such works as Mr. Chase's have a hearing. They throw a new light upon, and show a new side to a question that some have thought has but one side. Particularly to sympathizers with English agitators of the slavery question would we recommend Mr. Chase's volume. It should be read widely, North and South.

- 2.—*Theological Essays.* By FREDERICK DENISON MAURICE, M. A., Chaplain of Lincoln's Inn. From the Second London Edition, with a Preface and other additions. 12mo., pp. 359. New York : J. S. Redfield.

This is a somewhat remarkable work, has already created considerable sensation in the Established Church of England, and since its publication it has led to the author's expulsion from a college connected with that Church. Mr. Maurice maintains in these essays, what most will accept, that a theology which does not correspond to the deepest thoughts and feelings of human beings, cannot be a true theology. The volume contains seventeen essays, in which all the leading doctrines of the Church, as the Incarnation, the Atonement, Regeneration, Justification by Faith, Inspiration, Judgment Day, Trinity in Unity, &c.—these and other doctrines—are treated in an original manner, and with great apparent freedom. The book will be read by inquirers after truth of all sects.

- 3.—*Essays on Philosophical Writers, and other Men of Letters.* By THOMAS DE QUINCY. 2 vols., 18mo., pp. 292 and 291. Boston : Ticknor, Reed & Fields.

As a literary essayist, De Quincy is justly entitled to a high rank, and his productions are worthy the enduring form in which they have been produced by the American publishers. The volumes before us contain essays on Sir William Hamilton, Sir James Mackintosh, Kant, in his *Miscellaneous Essays*, John Paul Frederick Richter, Lessing, Richard Bentley, and the celebrated Dr. Samuel Parr and his contemporaries. The fifteen volumes already published by the enterprise of Ticknor, Reed & Fields, thus far the only complete collection of De Quincy's writings, must be appreciated by, and find a place in the library of every gentleman who makes any pretension to literary taste.

- 4.—*Minnie Hermon ; or the Night and its Morning. A Tale for the Times.* By THURLOW W. BROWN. 12mo., pp. 472. New York : J. C. Derby. Auburn and Buffalo : Miller, Orton & Mulligan.

A story whose characters are drawn from life, the materials of which were collected by the author during the active participation in the temperance reform. It is a true picture of the evil effects of intemperance upon individuals and society, simply and truthfully illustrated.

- 5.—*History of Oliver Cromwell and the English Commonwealth, from the Execution of Charles I. to the Death of Cromwell.* By M. GUIZOT. Translated by Andrew R. Scoble. 2 vols. 12mo., pp. 426 and 480. Philadelphia: Lea & Blanchard.

The entire history of the English Revolution embraces a period extending from the accession of Charles I. to the fall of James II. It may be naturally divided by the great events which it includes into four periods. The first comprehends the reign of Charles; the second contains the history of the Commonwealth; the third, the restoration of monarchy; and the fourth, the downfall of the race of Stuarts. Such is the order adopted by this eloquent writer; and the present volumes are devoted to the second period above stated. The translation is extremely well rendered from the French. The views of English affairs taken by this distinguished author, and the eloquence with which they are presented, render these volumes indispensable to the reader of English history, especially at a period when those troubles existed which led to the rapid settlement of America.

- 6.—*Tempest and Sunshine; or Life in Kentucky.* By Mrs. M. J. HOLMES. 12mo., pp. 381. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

An interesting romance, illustrating the different characters of two sisters, whose dispositions suggest the title of the book. The story shows that those who are actuated by true and pure motives in their daily lives, though they may become victims of dishonesty and duplicity, yet in the end justice will be done; while those who are successful for a time in their baseness and evil designs, will eventually find only exposure and remorse. The plot is well laid. The character of Julia may be somewhat overdrawn, still many defects may be overlooked where a book has a good moral tendency. It may be read with profit as well as amusement.

- 7.—*Russia as it is.* By Count A. DE GUNOWSKI. 12mo., pp. 300. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

We have no hesitation in saying that this volume displays a more intimate knowledge of Russia than any hitherto published in this country. The present state of its society, its civil organization, the character of its government, and the condition of the people, are described with a fullness and intimacy which could have been obtained only by a long residence in that country. The work has already, as we learn, met with a large sale, and is still in good demand.

- 8.—*Sacred Poems and Hymns, for Public and Private Devotion.* By JAMES MONTGOMERY. With the Author's latest corrections, and with an Introduction by John Holland. 12mo., pp. 388. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

As a writer of sacred poetry, Montgomery ranks among the first. This collection, prepared by the author, is very extensive and accurate. The excellence of sentiment, and the smooth and easy versification, will make this volume a treasure with all who once become familiar with it. The introductory essay is worth the price of the volume.

- 9.—*The Forestiers.* By ALEXANDER DUMAS. 12mo., pp. 225. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

Dumas is well known as one of the most popular novelists of Paris. This story is among the best from his pen. It is the first of a series which will be published simultaneously in this country and France. The English translation is prepared by a competent French scholar, alike familiar with both languages, and with the approval of the author.

- 10.—*The Sunshine of Greystone. A Story for Girls.* By E. J. MAY. 16mo., pp. 321. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

This is an admirable story, by the author of "Louis' Schoolboy Days," which has met with such a favorable reception. As that was designed for boys, so this one has been expressly prepared for girls. It is written in a chaste and elevated style, abounds in excellent sentiments, and is full of interest.

- 11.—*Africa and America Described.* With Anecdotes and Numerous Illustrations. By the Author of "The Peep of Day," &c. 12mo., pp. 319. New York: Robert Carter & Brothers.

This work is designed for children, and contains descriptions of the most remarkable geographical features of Africa and America, including South America and the United States. It is copiously illustrated with wood engravings.

- 12.—*The British Poets*. 18mo. 8 vols. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. New York: Evans & Dickerson.

We noticed in former numbers of the *Merchants' Magazine* the progress of this enterprise, and referred in terms of general commendation to the series, which, when completed, will form the most complete collection of the poets, from Chaucer to Wordsworth, extant. We referred in our previous notices to the publication of the works of Gray, Goldsmith, Pope, Prior, Cowper, Butler, and Collins. We have since received from the Messrs. Evans & Dickerson, the publishers' agents in New York, the poetical works of Charles Churchill, with copious notes, and a life of the author by Wm. Tooke, F. R. S., in three volumes; the poetical works of Edward Young, in two volumes, with a life by the Rev. John Mitford; the poems of Thomas Hood, in two volumes, with some account of his life, and the poetical works of Henry Kirke White, in one volume, with a memoir by Sir Charles Nicolas. These eight volumes cover some twenty-six hundred pages. The poems of Young, White, and Hood, are prefaced with handsomely engraved portraits of each, and a concise and comprehensive life is prefixed to the works of each of the poets embraced in the series. The size and style of the volumes are those of Pickering's celebrated Aldine Poets, and such of the works of that edition as fall within the plan of Little, Brown & Co's collection, have been and will be embodied in it. Each separate work is sold by itself, but the price of each volume is such (75 cents,) as to place the entire series in the hands of every one who has the means of forming a private library. The uniform and beautiful style in which the series is published, so far as paper and print are concerned, is excellent, and but one opinion exists as to the great merits of the enterprise. We shall have occasion to refer to it again, and will not, therefore, exhaust our vocabulary of praise.

- 13.—*Hand Book of Natural Philosophy and Astronomy*. By DIONYSIUS LARDNER, D. C. L., Formerly Professor of Natural Philosophy and Astronomy in University College, London. Third Course. Meteorology, Astronomy. With thirty-seven plates, and upwards of two hundred illustrations on wood. 12mo. pp. 768. New York.

This appears to be a very full and complete treatise on the whole subject of astronomy as well as meteorology. The author has evidently taken great pains to render the work as complete in all respects, and as nearly co extensive with the actual state of the sciences, as the objects to which it is directed admit. He has detected several errors of considerable importance, which have hitherto been almost universally disseminated in elementary works, and under the authority of the most eminent names. This is the last of a series of three hand-books of Natural Philosophy. The first course related to mechanics, hydrostatics, hydraulics, pneumatics, sound and optics, and the second to heat, magnetism, common electricity, and voltaic electricity.

- 14.—*Annual of Scientific Discovery; or Year Book of Facts in Science and Art for 1854*. Edited by Daniel A. Wells, A. M. 12mo., pp. 398. Boston: Gould & Lincoln.

This is the fifth or sixth year of the publication of this valuable annual. The present volume is equal in value and interest to any that have preceded it. It exhibits in a clear and concise form the most important discoveries and improvements in mechanics, useful arts, natural philosophy, chemistry, astronomy, meteorology, zoology, botany, mineralogy, geology, geography, and antiquities, made known through various authoritative mediums during the year 1853. The present volume contains a list of recent scientific publications, a classified list of patents, obituaries of eminent scientific men, and notes on the progress of science during the year. It is a convenient book of reference, and highly creditable to the research and skill of the editor and compiler.

- 15.—*The Art Journal*, for April, 1854. London: George Virtue. New York: 26 John-street.

A superb number of an unrivaled art-work. Besides the numerous engravings on wood in the best specimens of that art, we have three matchless pictures on steel, viz., Christ Lamenting over Jerusalem, from the painting of Sir C. L. Eastlake, engraved by J. Outrim, and The Surprise, from Dubuff, engraved by W. Roffe, both from the Vernon Gallery, and the Summer Holliday, from a spirited painting by Goodal, engraved by the same. We are gratified to learn that the "Art Journal" has a large and increasing circulation in the United States. It deserves it.

16.—*Saxton's Hand Books*. 2 vols., 12mo. New York: C. M. Saxton.

These volumes contain a collection of works of rare value to the agriculturist. The several works embraced in the series were originally published separately, but they are now embraced in two volumes, and form a very complete and comprehensive treatise on the subjects discussed. In the first series we find distinct works on the hog, the horse, the bee, the domestic fowl, the pests of the farm—by Richardson, whose writings on subjects connected with farming in England are very popular, and are fast becoming equally so in the United States. The second series contain the hand books, with titles as follow: *Every Lady Her Own Flower Gardener*; *Skinner's Elements of Agriculture*; *Brown's Bird Fancier*; *Dana's Essay on Manures*; *Fessenden's American Kitchen Gardener*; and the *American Rose Agriculturist*. The English works embraced in these volumes have been improved and adapted to the conditions of American agriculture by a competent and experienced hand; and altogether the series form one of the best collections of books extant on the several topics, and should form a part of every agriculturist's library.

17.—*Rambles in Brazil*; or a Peep at the Aztecs. By one who has seen them. Second Edition. With Maps and Illustrations. 12mo., pp. 264. New York: Charles B. Norton.

The author gives an animated account of his experience while journeying through Brazil. The first part is written in the form of a journal, recording the thoughts and sentiments which were suggested by the many incidents occurring at the time, and growing out of the circumstances which surrounded him in this country. The events are penned in a spirited, pleasant style, full of enthusiasm. The second part of the volume was composed after his return, and gives a historical account of the Valley of the Incas. He treats upon the government, military and civil institutions, modes of communication, building, domestic manners and customs, and pastoral life.

18.—*The Constitutional Text Book*: Containing Selections from the Writings of Daniel Webster; the Declaration of Independence; the Constitution of the United States; and Washington's Farewell Address. With copious Indexes. 12mo, pp. 503. New York and Boston: C. S. Francis & Co.

This work, designed for the higher classes of educational institutes and home reading, contains selections from the writings of Mr. Webster, of a purely national character, and such as are calculated to strengthen the opinions of the old, and impress the young with a love of country and veneration for its institutions. The other documents alluded to in the title-page are in a convenient form for reference. It forms a very handsome and desirable book for every family library.

19.—*Jaqueline Pascal*; or a Glimpse of Convent Life at Port Royal. From the French of M. Victor Cousin, M. Prosper Faugere, M. Vinet, and other Sources. Translated by H. N. With an Introduction by W. R. Williams, D. D. 12mo, pp. 318. New York: R. Carter & Brothers.

Jaqueline Pascal is described as a woman in whom dignity and lowliness, wisdom and simplicity, lofty genius and saintly piety, the martyr's firmness and the woman's tenderness, were rarely and beautifully blended. These memorials of her life and character, blended with other matters, will be read with interest.

20.—*The Powers of the World to Come*, and Church Stewardship, as invested with them. By GEORGE B. CHEEVER, D. D. 12mo, pp. 384. New York: Robert Carter & Brother.

The present work had its origin in a course of lectures by the author, and purports to be "a practical survey of what is termed in some quarters the Extraology of the Scriptures—the realities we are to meet beyond the grave." Dr. C. is a vigorous writer, and the present work will doubtless find many admirers among his theological disciples.

21.—*American Statistical Annual of 1854*. Compiled from Authentic Sources. By RICHARD S. FISHER and CHARLES COLBY. 12mo, pp. 537. New York: J. H. Colton & Co.

This is a work embracing the latest general details and statistics respecting all the countries on the continent of America. It includes also those of some of the Pacific islands. It is very full in its particulars, prepared with care, and contains a large amount of valuable information nowhere else to be found.

- 22.—*The Standard Pronouncing Dictionary of the French and English Languages, in two Parts.* The first part comprehending, in French and English words in common use, terms connected with science and the fine arts, historical, geographical, and biographical names, with the pronunciation according to the French Academy and the most eminent lexicographers and grammarians. The Second Part, English and French, containing all English words authorized by eminent writers, with the pronunciation according to the best authorities. The whole preceded by a practical and comprehensive system of French pronunciation. By GABRIEL SURENNE, F. A. S. E. 8vo., pp. 920. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

The contents of this very valuable dictionary of the French and English languages are stated very fully in the title. Some of the prominent features of this work are the excellence of the pronunciation, the fullness and accuracy of the definitions, the very convenient style in which it is published, and its excellent typographical appearance. For Americans, it is one of the most valuable dictionaries of the French which we possess.

- 23.—*The Works of Joseph Addison*, including the whole contents of Bishop Hand's edition; with Letters and other Pieces not found in any previous collection; and Macaulay's Essay on his Life and Works. Edited, with Critical and Explanatory Notes, by George Washington Green. In 5 vols. Vol. 4. 12mo., pp. 689. New York: G. P. Putnam & Co.

The whole number of papers comprised in the Spectator is 635, of which Addison wrote 274. The present volume contains 261—all presumed to be from the pen of Mr. Addison. One volume more completes the series of papers, and beyond all question the most complete and perfect edition of the writings of that celebrated British Classic heretofore published. The style in which these volumes appear is highly creditable to the taste and enterprise of the publishers; and we have no hesitation in commending it as the best library edition extant.

- 24.—*Humilities; or the Theory of Preaching.* By A. VINET, D. D. Translated and Edited by Thomas H. Skinner, D. D. 12mo. New York: Ivison & Phinney.

Preaching is the subject of this original work, to the theory of which and that of secular oratory the author strictly confines himself. His work is a directory for all public speakers, and for all who desire to excel in argumentation, oratorical and elegant writing. There is scarcely a question bearing upon these subjects which is not here treated with a charm of diction, and a strength and beauty of style, for which the author is greatly distinguished.

- 25.—*The Invalid's Own Book: A Collection of Recipes from various Books and various Countries.* By the Honorable LADY CREST. 18mo., pp. 144. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

Most books of this description have been written and published to gratify the tastes and provoke the appetites of epicures, or persons in the enjoyment of good health. This has been prepared especially for those who do not enjoy the blessing. The simplicity and the economy of its arrangement must place it within the reach of all classes of society.

- 26.—*Memoirs of John Abernethy, F. R. S.* With a View of his Lectures, Writings, and Character. By GEORGE MACILWAIN, F. R. C. S., author of "Medicine and Surgery," "One Inductive Science," &c., &c. 12mo., pp. 434. New York: Harper & Brothers.

The author of these memoirs in early life became, through his father, a physician, an enthusiastic admirer of Abernethy; and has in the present volume drawn what appears to be a faithful portraiture of his genius as exhibited in the lectures, writings, and character, professional and private, of that eminent surgeon. It is a work that will interest the medical student.

- 27.—*The Religion of the Northmen.* By RUDOLPH KEYSER, Professor of History in the University of Norway. Translated by BARCLAY PENNOCK. 12mo., pp. 346. New York: Charles B. Norton.

This is a translation of Professor Keyser's work. It is designed to give more extended publicity to a series of lectures, delivered by that learned professor, on the popular life of the Northmen in Heathendom. The work is prefaced by an elaborate introduction by the translator.

- 28.—*An Art Student in Munich.* By ANNA MARY HOWITT. 12mo., pp. 470. Boston: Ticknor, Reed & Fields.

This is quite a charming volume from the pen of Miss Howitt, written in a poetical and animated style, rarely found in a personal narrative. She relates her experience while sojourning in Munich, with sketches of the every-day life of an art student in that capital. The authoress certainly inherits much of her mother's genius and faculty for composition. Her artistic criticisms evince much ability—the many incidents which are recorded, and the happy descriptive talent which she possesses, render the volume very attractive.

- 29.—*The Two Roads: Or the Right and the Wrong.* By JAMES KNORR. 12mo., pp. 372. Philadelphia: Lippincott, Grambo & Co. New York: O. A. Roorback.

This volume consists of tales, anecdotes, sketches and poems, designed to illustrate the evils of intemperance, and the benefit of abstinence from intoxicating drinks. It is an excellent book, and should be in the hands of old and young. It alludes to movements in many of the States touching the traffic in liquors, and commends the enactment of prohibitory laws.

- 30.—*The Humorous Speaker: Being a Choice Collection of Amusing Pieces, both in Prose and Verse, Original and Selected—consisting of Dialogues, Soliloquies, Parodies, &c., designed for the use of Schools, Literary Societies, Debating Clubs, Social Circles, and Domestic Entertainment.* By OLIVER OLDHAM. 12mo., pp. 408. New York: Ivison & Phinney.

This valuable collection of humorous pieces are, as the title-page sets forth, every way adapted to the use for which they are designed. Nearly all the pieces come from the pens of our best authors, full of wit and humor, without vulgarity. The volume is well deserving of an introduction into our schools, as a text-book for reading and declaiming. It is admirably calculated for that purpose, and will be found a valuable acquisition to the school library.

- 31.—*Sketches of the Campaign in Northern Mexico in 1846 and 1847.* By an Officer of the First Regiment of Ohio Volunteers. 12mo., pp. 336. New York: George P. Putnam & Co.

The author of this book was an eye-witness of what he describes, and he therefore claims for it the belief of the reader. His history purports to be one of facts, collected from notes taken almost daily during the campaign. He quotes only such orders, dispatches, &c., as are necessary to elucidate the narrative, and has recited plainly and briefly those interesting events in which the troops of Ohio participated, together with such incidents of Taylor's campaign as seemed necessary to afford the general reader a clear, connected, and comprehensive view of the war in Northern Mexico.

- 32.—*Emblems, Divine and Moral.* By FRANCIS QUARLES. 18mo., pp. 323. New York: Carter & Brothers.

Quarles was cup-bearer to Elizabeth, Queen of Bohemia, Secretary to Archbishop Usher, and chronologer to the city of London in the reign of King Charles the First. The late Rev. John Ryland styles him "a man of spiritual wit and imagination," and regards him as the first, as Herbert was the second, divine poet of the English nation. There is a quaintness in his style that will interest many, and under it lies a vein of common sense that will perhaps please more.

- 33.—*Lectures on the Formation of Character, Temptations, and Mission of Young Men.* By Rev. RUFUS W. CLARK, author of "Memoir of Emerson," "Heaven and its Emblems." 12mo., pp. 380. Boston: J. P. Jewett & Co.

An excellent manual for young men, replete with sound and judicious suggestions. The work is divided into three parts, and several lectures are given under each general head. Part I., Character, with lectures on Home Influence, Formation of Character, Energy of Character, and Examples of Energy. The "temptations" to which young men are exposed are set forth in six lectures, and their Mission and Duties in eight more. The lectures on "Energy of Character" and the "Principles of Trade," we commend to the particular attention of all who are starting in life, and would succeed in the mercantile or any other occupation or pursuit.

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